

COMMON ELEMENTS IN ADMINISTRATION

**Report on a Special Project of the
National Conference on Social Welfare
1960-64**



Edited by Ella W. Reed

**NATIONAL CONFERENCE ON SOCIAL WELFARE
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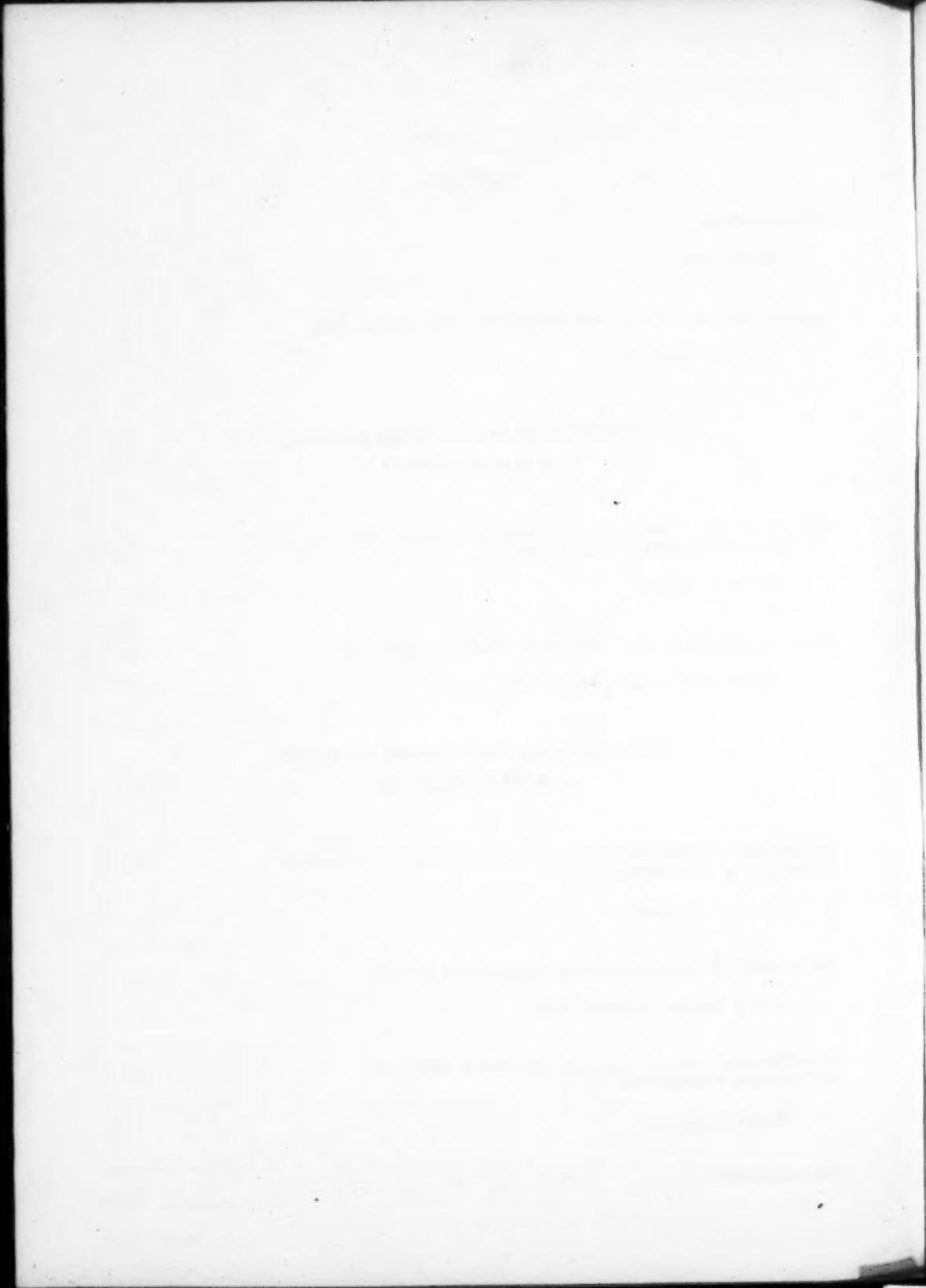
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Introduction

In 1959 the Executive Committee of the N.C.S.W. authorized the appointment of two committees which were asked to explore the "common elements" in administration in the three fields—public administration, social welfare, and business, particularly to explore the contribution each can make to the other. A group in Pittsburgh and another in the New York City area with representation from the three fields were appointed.

The first reports from these committees were presented at the 1960 Annual Forum. The committees continued their discussions and presented a final account of their deliberations at the 1962 Annual Forum.

A review of the Annual Forum programs of the N.C.S.W. of the sixties, reveals a continued interest in Administration (Management)—its problems, skills, and philosophy. Such a review also indicates that there is a growing interest in analyzing and comparing the administrative processes in public administration, social welfare administration, and business. With the difficulties frequently experienced, in each of these fields, in filling top management positions, the question, "Is there a distinct, identifiable process which occurs in all administration?" keeps recurring. There seems to be a growing awareness that as governmental units, social welfare institutions and businesses grow larger and more complex, the administrative processes become more important and more discernible.

In reviewing the current literature on administration (see Bibliography, p. 47), it appears there is a growing agreement that administration shows more common elements among large institutions, large units of government, and in the high echelons of large businesses. Some leaders see "management" slowly evolving as a true profession, and like medicine and engineering, evolving as a science and as an art.

Mary Parker Follett, one of the pioneers, who saw management as a profession, in one of her papers entitled "Management as a Profession" said in the conclusion of the paper:

"What does all this imply in regard to the profession of business management? It means that men must prepare themselves as seriously for this profession as for any other. They must realize that they, as professional men, are assuming grave responsibilities, that they are to take a creative part in one of the large functions of society, a part which I believe only trained and disciplined men can in the future hope to take with success."

It is important to note that in 1965 there is not agreement on Miss Follett's conclusion. The reader will note that the New York Area Committee does not agree with the Pittsburgh Committee's thinking on the mobility or transferability of administrators (managers) across fields.

Since 1962 the requests for the Pittsburgh and the New York Committee reports have continued, and the N.C.S.W. hopes that making them available, including the comments of the discussants, will continue to stimulate discussions of the specialized skills in administration, and help to further identify what is common to administration in the three fields.

The N.C.S.W. was fortunate in persuading Dean Wayne Vasey of the George Warren Brown School of Social Work, Washington University, to write an analysis of the two committee statements (the Pittsburgh and the New York Area reports) to set out the unanswered questions in the statements, and to indicate next steps that need consideration.

The Conference Board and Executive Secretary are deeply indebted to the committee chairmen, the committee members, the discussants, and to Dean Vasey for their help in making this compilation possible.

Special thanks are due Miss Martha Allen and Dr. James D. Thompson for preparing the committee statements.

Ella W. Reed
Consultant to N.C.S.W. Special Projects on Administration

Operations Report of the New York Area Committee

ELMA PHILLIPSON COLE

Vice-Chairman, 1961; Chairman, 1962

Background

The New York Area Committee was appointed in April of 1959 by the President of the National Conference on Social Welfare. The letter inviting members to serve stated: "The major purpose of the project is to identify significant aspects of the three fields, (business administration, social welfare administration, and public administration), with regard to differences and similarities, and particularly to emphasize the contribution each has to make to the other." Similar committees were being set up in Pittsburgh and Chicago, each to include representation from social welfare, business, trade unions, public administration and the public at large. The letter did not say to what audience the Committee's report was to be directed, nor the ultimate use to be made of the document.

The Committee was asked to complete its assignment in two years, and to make a preliminary report at the end of its first year. The project was subsequently extended to a third year. Modest financing was from a Special Projects Reserve Fund, set up with contributions and memberships from industry, business, and organized labor. The Conference assigned Mrs. Ella W. Reed, its Consultant on Special Projects, to staff the Committee.

Plan of Work

The Committee met for the first time on June 11, 1959. They agreed:

1. To meet five times during 1959-60, and five times during 1960-61, each meeting to last three hours. For the 1961-62 period longer sessions were necessary to complete the work. The Committee met 13 times in the three years.
2. The focus would be on what business, government, and social welfare can learn from each other about methods of executive selection, training, development, and evaluation.
3. Because the subject was so broad and the time available for Committee work was so limited, (a) between Committee meetings, selected members, would prepare advance materials for discussion of the full Committee, (b) bibliographical material would be distributed for reading between Committee meetings, and (c) summaries of the Committee's discussion would be prepared by individual members of the Committee and distributed to the others.
4. The key questions for discussion were: (a) How do we define administrative or managerial work in our respective fields? What are the tasks of management? (b) How do we attract, locate, identify people who have the potential capability and desire to do this work? (c) How do we provide them with executive development training? (d) How do we evaluate their performance?

The Committee's Processes, Pleasures, and Problems

Any committee tackling a diffuse question, especially if it is an across-the-lines one, will have problems. This is part of the challenge, the frustration, and the fun. The composition of this Committee added to the pleasures and the problems. Members seemed to enjoy each other; they were obviously stimulated by the contacts and the different approaches to questions.

The balance among the fields was not good—we were heavily weighted in favor of social welfare and very light in public administration, and even here the orientation was to social welfare. Business representation, while of top quality, was limited to two companies. Labor was not represented.

We had the added problem of shifting membership. Of the 18 who served at one time or another, there were nine who worked consistently with the material. These were: Martha Allen, Charles X. Sampson, Moorhead Wright, Elma Phillipson Cole, Frederick Daniels, Marian Farren, Edward Burbank, Herman Stein, and Robert Miller.

Most serious of all, however, was the inability of the chairman to attend meetings or to give leadership to the work after the first four meetings. The device of rotating the chair for presiding at meetings, and of, finally, in the summer of 1961 appointing a vice chairman did not fill the need for defined, continuous leadership. The plan of having individual members prepare and present new materials at committee meetings was not carried out.

Two sessions merit particular mention. In May of 1960, Mr. Wright, Director of the General Electric Management Research and Development Institute at Grotoville, New York, invited the Committee to meet at the Institute where we had the rare opportunity to see the facilities specially built for the General Electric Advanced Management Course, and to meet with the staff for full discussion of the philosophy, content, methods and such. A clambake concluded this happy event.

In February of 1961, Ashton Dunn, of Ashton Dunn Associates, a firm which recruits executives, discussed the ways in which such firms operate, how they work with the client who is seeking an executive, techniques and methods for identifying prospects for the client, and the pros and cons in this method of recruitment.

Bibliographical material used by the Committee is listed as an attachment to this report. The Committee is deeply grateful to Mr. Wright and to General Electric for making available materials from their management course and for the manuscript, "Evaluation of People", which he wrote for the Committee.

Several interesting items came to the attention of the Committee—items which have no place in a formal bibliography and which might have gone by unnoticed without the sensitizing effect the Committee work had on individual members. For example, in the New York Times for Tuesday, June 20, 1961 was a full page ad for the Wall Street Journal, which was an interesting editorial, titled "What is an Executive?" And the Times in July of 1961 headlined a news item "Managerial Talent Put in a Nutshell." Classic comments appeared in a speech before a Wardens' Conference of the Federal Bureau of Prisons. An ad from a commercial outfit worries, "Do You Guard Against These 7 Mistakes in Managing?" Not to labor the point, these assorted items illustrate only the breadth of approaches to and interest in the field we were examining. They make clear also some of the problems the Committee had in pinpointing and remaining on target.

There were remarkably few problems of semantics. The one term we struggled longest over was "administration" or "management." Having settled on the former, we reversed our thinking and stayed with management as being the term and the concept we were considering. The one problem we had the most difficulty with was on evaluation of the executive.

No attempt was made to be fully informed about or to correlate our work with the Pittsburgh Committee. The proposed Chicago Committee was not formed. Because the same NCSW staff consultant served the Pittsburgh and the New York Committees, the two groups were kept in touch with each other. It seems clear, however, that we did not influence each other's thinking or planning.

The Committee Report

The interim report of the Committee's work, prepared and presented by Miss Allen at the 1960 Annual Forum, was an excellent device for summarizing progress and pointing the way to next steps. This summary was presented as one part of a panel session at the 1960 Annual Forum. Mr. Trecker moderated the panel, which included from the New York Committee: Martha Allen, Laurin Hyde, and Harry Page; other members participated from the floor.

At the close of the 1960-61 work year, we agreed that during the summer, our work to date as reflected in the minutes should be drafted into a preliminary report so that we might see where we stood, and what yet needed to be done. It was agreed that two reports should be prepared independently of each other—one by a business member of the Committee, the other by a social welfare member. Mr. Chelius undertook the one, Miss Allen the other. Regrettably, Mr. Chelius took a new position in the West and was not able to prepare his. The draft prepared by Miss Allen served as the basis for the Committee work during 1961-62. Miss Allen also prepared and presented the Committee's report at the 1962 Annual Forum of the National Conference on Social Welfare.

Appreciation

We are indebted to the National Conference on Social Welfare for the opportunity of working together on this project, Miss Martha Allen for the skillful job she did in pulling together the divergent ideas, and for her patience through sessions of group editing, and to Mrs. Ella Reed for her continuously gracious, generous assistance in moving the task toward completion.

COMMON AND UNCOMMON ELEMENTS IN MANAGEMENT

**A Report
to the National Conference on Social Welfare
by the New York Area Committee on
Common Elements in Management**

Martha F. Allen, Camp Fire Girls, Inc.

Edmund Burke, Council on Social Work Education

Frederick I. Daniels, Brooklyn Bureau of Social Service

Laurin Hyde, Laurin Hyde Associates

Robert G. Miller, Public Relations Division, Beneficial Management Corporation

Harry Page, Community Research Associates

Dr. Herman Stein, School of Social Work, Columbia University

Moorhead Wright*, Public Relations Services, General Electric Co.

Chairmen:

Dean Harleigh Trecker (1959), School of Social Work, University of Connecticut

Charles X. Sampson (1960), United Community Funds and Councils of America

Mrs. Elma Phillipson Cole (1961-62), National Social Welfare Assembly

*deceased

New York Area Committee Report on Common and Uncommon Elements in Management

MARTHA F. ALLEN

Camp Fire Girls, Inc.

My assignment today is to give you a summary of the three-year discussions of the New York Area Committee on Common Elements in Management. The Committee held fourteen well attended meetings lasting four to six hours. Discussion was lively, sometimes heated. While this paper does not represent exactly or all of what each committee member would like to say, it does represent a consensus of our views.

I. Task

The Committee sought to identify the common elements in one aspect of the management of governmental agencies, voluntary social welfare organizations, and corporate businesses—namely the selection, development, and evaluation of management personnel; to identify derivative principles; to discover methods and procedures applicable to all three types of enterprise. Specifically, the Committee asked itself the question, "What can business, government, and voluntary social welfare learn from each other about methods of executive selection, development and evaluation?"

Addressing itself to this question, the Committee first explored the similarities and differences in the purpose and structure of organizations in the three fields.

Throughout this document the Committee has used the word "management" instead of "administration" since administration is a more global term which includes but is not restricted to management. Likewise the term "manager" rather than "administrator" has been used. The term "manager" as used herein includes executives and all other persons who may exercise managerial authority. The word "executive" is used where a concept is limited to or applies primarily to the chief executive officer.

II. Similarities and Differences in Business, Voluntary Social Welfare, and Government—Implications

There is wide variation in the structure, purpose, history, and tradition of organizations within any given field. Therefore, a description of the characteristics of each of the three fields can only be very general.

Business

In general, business corporations are product-and profit-oriented. They are subject to government regulation in many ways, e.g., by Internal Revenue Code, Pure Food and Drug Act, Securities Revenue Code, Pure Food and Drug Act, Securities and Exchange Act, Anti-Trust, Unemployment Compensation, Social Security laws, etc. In addition they are held accountable by stockholders, and indirectly, by the customer.

They have concern for people and their responsibilities to employees are often regulated by union contracts. However, by their very nature it is their function and responsibility to insure the success of the corporation and to increase its earnings. Effectiveness of operation must, therefore, be of prime concern to management.

Boards of directors of business corporations receive fees and tend to be self-perpetuating although such directors are subject to election by stockholders. They are usually composed of people who have technical competence and skill in the type of business to be managed or in related businesses. There is usually close agreement among the members as to the objectives to be sought. They are, therefore, apt to operate crisply, deal with important issues quickly and reach agreement readily.

Generally, there are three types of corporation boards: (1) external, i.e., composed of skilled businessmen from other corporations; (2) internal, i.e., composed of members drawn from the management of the corporation, including the boards of subsidiary corporations; (3) and mixed. The theory of the corporate enterprise is that the directors are representatives of the stockholders and hold the chief executive responsible for the protection of this interest. Business corporations have specific objectives against which achievement can be measured such as profit margins, proportion of the market, product development, turnover.

Business boards do not generally make policy and instruct the executive to carry it out. Rather the executive submits ideas and makes policy, using his board to test and evaluate his ideas. Frequently the board is expected to decide certain matters relating to the management of the business, such as salaries of officers, stock options, purchase of real estate, diversification, merger.

Voluntary Social Welfare

The term voluntary social welfare as used herein applies to privately supported organizations such as health, recreational, youth-serving, social casework, community organization, and similar agencies, organized to meet certain needs of people, to work with specific types and ages of people or to perform specific functions with and in behalf of people. The structure and staffing varies widely according to the service rendered, tradition, or function performed.

In general, voluntary social welfare organizations are service- and people-oriented. While they are often highly accountable to their own constituencies, they are generally less accountable to the public than business or government. However, they are increasingly coming under government supervision in a fashion similar to business. Furthermore, the broadening of support has enhanced the ability of the general public to hold them accountable. Their structure, management and services are increasingly scrutinized as a result of federated financing, budget reviews, social audits, community and national surveys.

Because their goals are broad and general they have a greater problem in defining them than do either business corporations or government agencies.

While voluntary social welfare organizations do have defined and specific functions, e.g., service to families, service to the handicapped, etc., those which accomplish their objectives largely through the work of volunteers have an additional function not always recognized by the public or even by the organization's management. This function derives from the fact that such organizations are the instruments through which the citizen uses his personal resources of time, talent, and money to improve his community and serve his fellow man. Therefore, the personal development of those members who serve as well as of the clientele served is a major concern of management and is an additional dimension in the manager's job not generally found in government or business.

Boards of social welfare organizations include businessmen and women, professionals, labor leaders, housewives, and others who do not necessarily have technical competence in the organization's program. Some are elected by a constituency body representative of the supporters or members of the agency and to a lesser extent, the general community. While rotation of board membership is increasing, many boards are self-perpetuating.

More than in business organizations the board is a policy-making body. The top executive is generally the employee of the board and is responsible to it. He is expected to help the board in policy development. In addition he is charged with responsibility for agency management in accordance with policies and broad program objectives agreed upon by the board. It is traditional in some voluntary welfare organizations to regard the senior staff member exclusively as an agent of the board. Further, it has sometimes been assumed that professional social workers do not have management skills, whatever other skills they may possess. In such cases there is a tendency for the president or board chairman to operate as the chief executive officer. The general trend is, however, clearly toward an arrangement where the senior staff member executes the management function in the full sense.

Government

Government agencies are oriented to the performance of a service established by law, being held accountable ultimately to a legislative body and the general public. They are responsible for developing maximum efficiency possible within a complicated political and social system.

Top executives of government departments, commissions, etc., are often appointed by the mayor, the governor, or the President. They may be responsible to a board of directors or to a publicly appointed board or commission. In such cases the relationship of the executive to the board or commission is not unlike that of the board-executive relationship in voluntary social welfare.

However, most government programs are not operated under the direction of boards or commissions. Even so, the relationship to a state legislature has some of the elements of the board-executive relationship, more in the matter of policy than in management.

Departments of public welfare, while deriving from and operating within the framework of government, have management problems distinct from those of other government agencies because of their objectives, use of professional social workers, etc. Nevertheless, an analysis of the management of public welfare departments does illustrate some of the common problems and relationships of all public management.

Public welfare programs are based upon law and the official interpretation of this expression of public policy. This offers stability in management, but without strong executive leadership it can impose program limitations and rigidity. Public welfare executives are subject to the continuous pressures of public opinion, and conflicting attitudes toward both government and dependency. The public expects efficient investigation and control features in all welfare services. Executives must assure that services have these characteristics. Yet these services were created by law to meet human needs and the management must be influenced by the knowledge that the human problems presented by those who seek help require professional understanding and the flexibility of highly individualized services.

The problems presented by public pressures and controversy are particularly keen for executives of public welfare; but such problems are common in varying degrees to executives of all public enterprises. Government bureaus and departments which deal with a service requiring the skills of professional people simply present some special problems and differences.

Public welfare programs generally involve two or three levels of government—local, state and federal—each having its own structure, hierarchy, laws, rules, procedures, and responsibility for finance; each deeply involved by tradition and by law in programs usually administered in local communities. In addition to the individual problems of participating units, there is continuing need for effective communication among them.

Many public welfare agencies are complex in their intra-relationships, with responsibility for several types of assistance, care and service programs requiring specialization. Further, the volume of cases served in each of the programs makes public welfare management "big business" in a governmental setting. Management problems arising from bigness are felt throughout much of government at all levels.

In respect to size and complexity of function, which can result in cumbersome management, government agencies, voluntary social welfare, and corporate business have problems in common.

Implications of Similarities and Differences

The role and composition of the board of directors is a major factor in influencing management practice in all three fields. While all boards are involved to some extent in the management of any organization, the degree of involvement tends to be greater in voluntary social welfare than in private business or government.

In general, the chief executive of a business corporation has greater freedom in relation to his board of directors to determine policy and manage the business than does the executive of a voluntary social welfare organization. However, in both enterprises, size, age, tradition complicate the problems of management and impose limitations on the process of change.

The greater the decentralization and the participation in decision making in an organization, the slower and more cautious becomes the process of policy change. Such processes are often in the public interest as they limit the power of a single individual and make capricious or ill-considered change difficult. In addition they may have the advantage of utilizing many individual judgments and capacities to their fullest.

Executives of government departments are even more limited in their freedom to make independent decisions by political considerations, public controversy and in some cases by their employing boards, commissions or legislative bodies. Civil service regulations also impose limitations.

Whereas the board in any type of organization, regardless of purpose and structure, does have an influence on the conduct of the top executive, the staff below can and does influence all executive action and the executive's relationship to the board. Formal and informal groupings of staff devise pressures of their own to influence executive action. The board-committee structure of some voluntary social welfare agencies wherein board members work in close collaboration with staff may, and often does, present added challenges to the managerial and human relations skills of top executives.

Relations between generalists and specialists create managerial problems in all three enterprises. These problems become more acute with size, age and complexity.

While the techniques and skills of management are common to the three fields, the nature of the enterprises and their differing purpose and emphases call for some differences in perspective and in the human qualities of those who are their managers.

In all three fields the same managerial functions, which will be discussed later, must be performed. Furthermore, satisfactory working relationship of any top executive to the board and the way he works with its members is directly related to his knowledge, competence, experience, efficiency and skill in human relations. If he has these qualities, the board trusts him and accepts his leadership. If not, the board generally fires him. As boards of voluntary social welfare organizations have become more and more aware of the need for effective management they, like business, have come to expect and demand better trained and more competent executives. Likewise, the general public is more and more vocal about the caliber of executive leadership needed for public programs. While politics is still an important consideration, more and more examples can be cited of persons chosen for their experience and competence rather than for their politics alone. This is especially true in those departments of government dealing with people's fundamental needs—education, health, social welfare, for example.

III. Definition of Management

Management is the function of obtaining and transforming pertinent human, physical, and financial resources into a dynamic system of responsibilities and accountabilities to develop and maintain a program of production or services.

The internal responsibility and accountability of management personnel in any given organization are comparable to those in all other organizations.

IV. Elements of Management

Management can be categorized or dissected into many elements. One useful set of components is the following:

Planning—analyzing trends, needs, resources and problems; determining objectives; establishing policies; selecting means;

Organizing—dividing work into manageable components; grouping components and jobs; selecting individuals; deciding upon methods;

Integrating—interpreting objectives, plans, means and methods to be used; maintaining communications among components and participants; securing acceptance of assignments and responsibilities;

Measuring—devising systems of measuring, recording and reporting; appraising results in relation to costs and objectives; feeding the planning element.

These elements form a continuous cycle with one always feeding into the other.

Planning and organizing are long-time concerns of management literature. Integrating and measuring are relatively new, replacing coordination (command) and control since these words do not express adequately the plus values in the mutual efforts of people working together.

The four elements with their component parts are essential, but in greatly differing degrees, to the management of all enterprises. It may be an exercise in futility for a very small organization to engage formally in the elaborate management processes required in large and complex organizations.

In complex organizations, these processes may be continuous and interacting at all levels of operation, having a reciprocal influence in all parts of the system.

V. The Tasks of Management

1. Relating to the Community

This is of great importance in all three types of management. The degree to which it is understood varies among the three fields and varies sharply from organization to organization within a given field. Corporate business has grown out of individual enterprise, and corporate voluntary social welfare has grown out of private and individual charity. As this process of growth has accelerated, the significance of the corporation's place and role in the community has taken on new meaning and importance. Public management is so inherently a part of the body politic that the need to relate through planned channels directly to the general community has remained under-developed and under-used until relatively recently. Often citizen advisory boards and committees have been called into being only after a crisis has occurred.

2. Effecting Change

Organizations of all types are viable only to the extent that they can adapt to change. Therefore, an essential task of all management is to effect change to eliminate the non-productive and irritative, to adapt to new circumstances and at the same time maintain the integrity of organizational machinery.

The need for change and adaptation is constant. All executives must, therefore, have a great degree of wisdom, skill, courage, and patience to effect needed change amid all the factors operating for and against it in all types of organizations.

3. Developing Personnel

The development of personnel is a task which is of equal importance in all three types of management. This involves helping others grow, getting satisfaction from seeing others perform, encouraging self-reliance or independence. The time spent on this aspect of management may need to be greater in voluntary social welfare organizations, especially in those which work through thousands of volunteer personnel.

4. Working with a Board

The similarities and differences in this relationship among the three fields have been discussed above.

VI. Basic Skills and Attributes of an Executive

Every executive must be committed and loyal to his organization and its purposes. At the same time he should be capable of relating his organization and its purposes constructively to the fundamental values of the society in which it operates. More specifically, he needs:

1. ability to understand the present situation and to visualize the potentials of the organization;
2. ability to translate the vision of potential into working goals;
3. ability to organize and motivate others toward the attainment of goals;
4. ability to analyze situations and problems and to exercise sound judgment in their solution;
5. ability to establish and maintain good interpersonal communication and working relations;
6. ability and willingness to accept responsibility, take risks and make decisions, sharing these with others when and as appropriate;
7. ability to think broadly, imaginatively and creatively;
8. the capacity and willingness to develop personnel;
9. a desire to grow and a willingness to pay the price of growth.

VII. Training of Management Personnel

In all three fields comparatively few people have had formal preparation or training in management.

By and large graduates of schools of business administration must have experience at various operating levels before they are elevated to executive or managerial positions. The larger business organizations generally offer more opportunities after employment for further management training than do government or voluntary social welfare.

Schools of public administration do provide opportunity for management training although many public managers do not have such training. In governmental social work organizations the channels to managerial authority are essentially of two kinds: (1) through social work preparation and experience without prior formal training in management; or (2) in the case of non-social workers, through formal management training, usually in a school of public administration.

There is need for formal training in the management of voluntary social welfare organizations, preferably for people who, following some years of experience in the field, have demonstrated a capacity for doing managerial work. Boards of agencies must recognize the need for such training and their responsibility to see that the opportunity to acquire it is afforded likely prospects.

VIII. Recruitment and Selection of Managerial Personnel

Business tends to promote from within the company. Most large corporations maintain a manpower inventory for managerial positions. At growth and pressure points, however, business gets managerial employees where it can find them.

Investigation of persons employed from outside the company is made generally on the basis of contacts with past employers. Selection is by matching the work to be done and the capabilities of the individual under consideration. The "personality characteristics" approach has been discarded by leaders in industry as an inadequate basis for selection. Selection is rather based on past job performance and, in the case of inexperi-

enced personnel, often on the basis of academic record in high school and college.

In some business corporations the decision to promote is a committee decision, whereas in others it is the decision of the supervising manager.

Voluntary social welfare tends to promote from within the agency. However, often because of limitations in the number of employees of social welfare organizations, it is common practice to recruit (1) from the social welfare field and (2) from allied fields, e.g., teaching. The decision to promote in social welfare is most often a management decision, but frequently board committees are involved. The choice of the top executive is always that of the governing body, although applicants are usually first screened by a personnel committee.

In government, wide use is made of the civil service process in the selection of managerial personnel. Top executives are generally appointed by elected officials. Studies indicate that there is a tendency for the career civil servant to rise to management from a specialty.

In all three fields there appears to be increasing use of paid consultants to provide a non-organizational view of the job, to identify its elements and to recruit and recommend qualified personnel for consideration of the employing body. The use of such consultants is less frequent in voluntary social welfare than in business and government.

It is essential in the selection of all types of management personnel to have a carefully developed "candidate specification" for each position.

In choosing unknown persons for top executive positions in business, voluntary social welfare, and public bodies, there should be careful checking of pertinent records, intensive interviews and extensive social exposure.

IX. Mobility of Executives

There is a good deal of opinion and practice to support the thesis that except for people with rare talent and great flexibility, executives are not readily interchangeable among the three fields. How things are done, whom the executive involves in the process, and the extent of the involvement, constitute major differences in the management of business, government and voluntary social welfare. Since these differences are significant and important, an executive must have commitment to and general knowledge of the business or service to be managed. Unless an executive has such commitment and knowledge, an organization runs the risk of distortion of its purpose and function. Furthermore, such an executive's authority to manage is challenged by the experts. This is particularly true in technical fields.

Each field of work, and even each organization within a field, has its own traditions and culture patterns. An executive can overcome such obstacles more easily if he stays within a given field of service, no matter what the setting in which the service is performed.

Lateral transfer is easier for those executives whose experience has been in complex and multiple-function organizations. The length of time a person has spent in a given field and the degree of his specialization will influence his mobility or lack of it.

While management is becoming more scientific and professionalized, it has not yet reached the point where there are fixed laws or norms which provide infallible guides to action or make desirable unlimited executive mobility.

X. Goals of an Executive Development Program

The goals of an executive development program are equally applicable to business, voluntary social welfare, and government. These are:

1. to assure better performance on the present job;
2. to prepare people for future responsibility;
3. to assure future growth of the company, agency, or service;
4. to provide individual opportunity to attain greater skill in management;

5. to provide a climate for self-development;
6. to provide a reservoir of trained personnel to fill vacancies;
7. to attract capable young executives to the company, agency, or service;
8. to encourage qualified people to remain with the organization.

XI. Principles to be Considered When Planning an Executive Development Program

1. Development is personal and individual.
2. No development occurs, regardless of opportunities provided, without personal motivation and desire.
3. The objective of a development program should be to help a person do a particular kind of work.
4. Day-to-day experience on the job is the most important factor in development.
5. Whenever possible, opportunity to be considered for executive development training should be made available to all employees, not just to the small group who seem to show promise.
6. Primary emphasis should be on development in the present assignment rather than in preparation for future promotion.
7. Development programs should be based on the best training materials and experience available in any of the three fields, as the principles of executive development and the skills needed are equally applicable to all three fields.

XII. Evaluation

Evaluation of people—a task common to all managerial work—is one of the most important and difficult tasks faced by any manager. Evaluation as discussed herein applies only to members of a paid staff. It is generally done for three purposes: pay; placement; development planning.

When evaluating for pay a manager has the responsibility for getting maximum performance (in terms of identifiable results) for the money paid out in salary. This involves an agreed-upon position guide with specific "accountability factors." Evaluation for pay is a review of how well an individual is meeting his accountability. Such review will determine whether the individual should be paid in the lower, middle or upper range of a previously determined salary scale. Evaluation for pay should be done annually at least. It is aimed at answering the question, "How well is this person fulfilling his contract with the organization?"

When evaluating for placement (i.e., hiring, lateral transfer, promotion or firing) the manager must perform the difficult task of matching the capabilities of the individual (not the personality traits as such) to the requirements of the job to be filled. Thus he must have as clear a definition as possible of (1) the work involved in the position and (2) the capabilities of the individual to do certain kinds of work.

A review of a person's work to help him plan for the development of excellence in the present job, as well as for future growth, is quite different from evaluation for pay or placement. The ends of management are clear, i.e., the survival, growth and effectiveness of the organization. However, in order to accomplish these ends, it is not only consistent but highly desirable that managers take cognizance of the individuality of those supervised; that they provide opportunity for the realization of individual capacities; that they offer latitude for judgment.

The four primary sources of information about an individual are: the person's record; tests; the person's own self-analysis; sensitive observation of the person's work. All four sources should be utilized as no one alone is definitive. Tests especially are still imperfect and must be used with care.

While some form of evaluation is standard practice in all types of organizations, it is not common practice in any of the three fields to evaluate the top executive except when a crisis arises. There are several reasons for this.

1. The board does not want to impair the morale of the organization by anything that would suggest the possibility of a change at the top.

2. The board often feels incompetent to evaluate the executive.
3. Both the board and the executive tend to think of evaluation in negative terms.

It is the opinion of this Committee that everyone has a right to know where he stands, including the chief executive, and that the personal growth and development of an executive should be of concern both to him and to the board. There are obvious reasons for differences in the method of evaluation of the chief executive and that of other staff.

1. The evaluation of the executive cannot be as visible as for other staff; otherwise an impression of instability is created.
2. Every time the total operation is reviewed the executive is affected. Therefore, executive evaluation per se must be highly specific and formalized. It is essential to separate the evaluation of the individual from the evaluation of the success of the organization.

The process of executive evaluation requires capacity of the board to make the evaluation. Boards should be built with this in mind and where necessary, should be strengthened in this respect. Outside management firms for executive evaluation are best used on a sympathetic basis or invoked in a crisis. Boards should not use management firms for evaluation as a way to avoid their own responsibilities.

Conclusion

In summary, the Committee concludes that there are more similarities than differences in the management of all human work, and common knowledge and skills are required for managers in all fields; that managers generally have inadequate formal training for their jobs as managers; that more is known about the scientific aspects of management than is now being used; that when a person, after thorough training in his own specialty, is considered for managerial work, he and his organization would profit greatly if he were given opportunity for formal management training.

The Committee recognizes that there is validity in separate management training for each of the three fields of work. The Committee concludes, however, that all management could be upgraded, the vision of individual managers broadened and mobility across fields rendered less hazardous, if there were more opportunities for managers of business, voluntary welfare, and government to be trained together, at least with respect to the common elements of management.

We believe that providing more opportunities of this nature is a matter deserving further exploration.

Discussion of the New York Area Committee Report

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DORA F. CAPWELL

Miss Allen's paper and the deliberations of the New York Committee whose work she has summarized covered a lot of ground. It is not surprising, therefore, that their preliminary exploration of the similarities and differences in the purpose and structure of organizations, a useful enterprise in itself, left them insufficient time for a thorough study of the aspect of management they chose as their central concern—namely, the selection, development, and evaluation of management personnel. They have given us a list of executive skills and attributes and a general description of common methods of recruiting and selection.

I should like to make a few comments on the last two topics Miss Allen discussed, management development, and evaluation, and devote the remainder of my time to some supplementary remarks on methods of selecting management personnel.

With regard to the list of principles of executive development, I heartily concur in the concept that development is personal and individual. An individual can be exposed to conceptual theories of administration, skill training in techniques which have been found useful, and case studies which provide practice in problem-solving. Much can be learned from all of these training devices, but how much the individual can utilize, how pertinent each segment is for his own particular needs, and how realistic the training is for him—these are all variables which must be determined for each individual executive. For this reason packaged training programs, whether for the management of a company, department heads of a government bureau, or the supervisors of a public or private social welfare organization, often scatter their shots and provide primarily a pleasant and visible exercise which everyone concerned enjoys thinking of as executive development. The problem of evaluating executive development programs has received considerable attention in the last decade, and where evaluation has been seriously attempted the results have been disturbingly indeterminate.

Psychologically speaking, the only sound approach appears to be one which starts where the individual is in his own development, with the felt needs which he has in regard to learning to function effectively in his present job. The skillful supervisor or next-level-up administrator can help an individual relate these needs to the demands of the job, give him feed-back which helps him analyze his own performance, and provide stimulation for thoughtful approaches to his problems as well as an example of administrative effectiveness. This is a long way of saying that individual on-the-job coaching on a day-to-day, week-to-week basis is perhaps the most powerful executive development tool. Administrators who fail to take time to provide this kind of relationship to their subordinates are neglecting a major task of management, the personnel development aspect listed by Miss Allen.

I must admit I take exception to the principle that executive development training should be made available to all employees if by that statement it is meant that all employees should be encouraged to take advantage of it. Valuable and important as managers are, whether in industry, government, or social welfare, they could accomplish little if there were not individuals within each type of organization whose primary interest and motivation were not in performing the functions which the organization is set up to accomplish. This is not just another way of saying, "There must be some Indians; we can't have all Chiefs," which implies merely that there must be both leaders and followers. Difficult as it is for some managers to comprehend, some people do not aspire to becoming a manager and would derive very little job satisfaction from it if given a managerial job. These are task-oriented people who know the joys of accomplishment but are somewhat less status conscious and are impatient with trying to get things done through other people. If they are skilled in their jobs, it is far better for all concerned, as some agencies have learned, to reward them for their work by all possible means—short of moving them to administrative or managerial jobs. A dramatic industrial example of this point of view is a recent announcement by one company of the establishment of the job classification of "Corporate Fellow," by which they mean—not an organization man—but a scientist in the employ of the corporation who has been relieved of managerial responsibility in order to do creative work. Let us learn to discriminate between those who are motivated to become managers and those who are not, and invest executive development training accordingly.

Performance evaluation for the purpose of salary administration is well defined as a review of how well an individual is meeting his "accountability." Performance review for personnel development is a similar process oriented to the needs of the individual in his job. Evaluation of performance to aid in placement or promotion decisions is really a part of the process of managerial selection, and hence I suggest we discuss it in that context, along with other selection procedures. Miss Allen and her committee have stated clearly the selection task, whether it be managerial selection or some other kind, as that of matching the requirements of the job with the capabilities of the individual. All honest managers, administrators, and Boards admit this is the extremely difficult task. When managers are selected who are successful, it is difficult to tell whether this was through the use of sound methods and procedures, unusual wisdom and insight, or sheer luck—or, what is more likely, a combination of these. Since this is the current stage of our knowledge in this field, it is perhaps worth while to try to make ourselves think concretely about the task of selecting a manager and evaluate the methods and procedures available to us. Admittedly they are less predictive than we wish they were, but at least let's look at them realistically.

The literature in the field of executive selection is replete with lists of desirable attributes for the ideal executive. The similarities to be found in such lists suggest that those who have thought about and are familiar with managerial behavior would agree on many of the core characteristics of managerial performance. There are, however, some significant differences in the critical requirements for specific managerial jobs. Thus it is important to describe in each situation what accomplishments are expected of the manager. This implies a systematic study of job requirements, not adoption of any pat

job description. The methods available to determine such requirements include studying the critical aspects of the performance of other persons in similar jobs, or the predecessor manager, or, in a new organization, defining the major needs and trying to translate these into person requirements. In other words, study the job before you think about persons or personal characteristics.

Once we have tried to make this translation from job requirements to person attributes, we then use the means available to determine whether a given individual has these attributes. The problem is very much the same whether we are trying to evaluate a candidate from outside the organization or one already in the organization but operating on a different job level. As sources of information we have (1) the objective facts of an individual's career, (2) his own attitude about his progress to date, (3) his aspirations for future accomplishments, (4) objective measurements via psychological tests of his reasoning and analytic ability, (5) his interests and values, and his temperament and personality characteristics as they relate to the position requirements, and (6) finally, we have the observations or opinions of those who have observed his work, either within or without the organization considering him for a managerial position. In operational terms, we have the history, test results, the interview, and reference checks. From each of these certain deductions must be made.

Performance on previous job assignments provides useful information only to the extent that it is relevant to the position under consideration. Moreover, it is not always easy to get consistent information regarding previous job performance. This is true as often within an organization as when asking for opinions of previous employers. Nevertheless, references and performance evaluation can both provide some clues to the prediction of managerial performance if interpreted perceptively.

The selection interview can be almost useless except to help determine whether the interviewer likes the individual on first impression. Selection Interview Training for managers is fairly common in industry and to some extent in government. Perhaps social welfare organizations could use some of this type of management development training.

Finally, how do you decide to risk the first managerial placement for an individual? It is here especially that psychological tests have some value. Actually they are quite good predictors of analytic and problem-solving ability. They also can provide fruitful information with regard to the temperamental and motivational characteristics of an individual. Those who caution, and rightly so, that tests are imperfect, would also agree, I'm sure, that interviews and reference information are far from precise selection tools. Social welfare organizations have used psychological information and skills for many years in working with their clients. Greater use might be made of them in selecting and developing staff in general and particularly in selecting managers.

GEORGE B. ROESSING

In my experience I have known a fair number of good administrators, or "managers" as we are calling them this afternoon. They were not, apparently, typical of the managers Miss Allen's group discussed, because they had almost all successfully made the transit to a field which was remote from that for which they had prepared themselves and to which they had devoted their early working years. Since my experience was in public assistance in the 1930's and in the army and in new international and economic aid organizations in the 1940's and early 1950's, I do not say that it has been typical. Nevertheless, I think the ability to change fields may not be so rare as the New York group concluded.

In any case, I have taken a careful look back at these men, and find an amazing similarity among them. It was their personal qualities which made them, obviously, not their knowledge of the business, because these were businesses which nobody really knew. Let me just list a few of those qualities. They led, they did not drive. They were organized; they knew the value of time, not only their own but other people's as well, especially their staff's. They worked hard, but they had not convinced themselves that the wheels would stop if they turned their backs. They remembered to share the credit with others and to drop a word of praise from time to time. They had and used either a sense

of drama or a sense of humor, rarely both. They had principles and convictions, and would throw up a job rather than compromise them.

They had the intellectual capacity to learn the elements of the new field quickly, and to absorb many of the details, but they had also a sense of balance and perspective which specialists often seem to lack. Although they did not, of course, have all these qualities in equal amounts, I cannot remember one in whom any one of these qualities was altogether missing.

It would be interesting to see someone take this thesis and examine, say 100 such shifts, trying to determine which were successful and which not, and why. The field of study should include not only the well-known personalities, such as Harry Hopkins and Charles Wilson and Forrestal, but also a good number of lesser lights. There has been much interchange among business, government, and education, less involving social welfare. It is obvious that staggering questions of judgment would immediately arise.

It is particularly interesting to speculate whether such a study would isolate any elements which can be taught, or whether only the mechanics of administration lends itself to classroom instruction. There must be a number of men like Tugwell who went from a university to government and then to industry. One would like an informed view of whether they acquired in government service skills which made them attractive to business, or whether government service merely gave them an opportunity to demonstrate abilities and qualities which they already possessed.

You must have been struck, as I was, by the fact that all four of the "tasks of management"—relating to the Community, Effecting Change, Developing Personnel, and Working with a Board—involve, in varying degree successful relationships with people. One should rightfully expect, then, that the helping professions would be a sort of nursery of adept and accomplished administrators; we are the people whose study is "people." Yet it would not take long to call the roll of psychiatrists, psychologists, social workers, nurses, and teachers who are top-notch executives in other fields.

Several hypotheses have occurred to me from time to time, all of which I vigorously reject. One is that our training may help unfit us for administration, largely by its taboos against the use of authority, perhaps. Another is that skill in one-to-one relationships is incompatible by nature with skill in one-to-a-hierarchy or one-to-the-public relationships. A third is that the people who go into the helping professions have other qualities than those I find in the good administrators I have known. My bewilderment is compounded by the appalling number of social workers I have known who were oblivious to the personal element in their administrative relations.

Miss Allen refers to the problems of the administrator in government, but does not seem to me to emphasize them enough. I have often thought that this situation is peculiar from so many angles as to be almost incomparable with any other. We are accustomed to think of the executive chosen for his administrative ability and the executive chosen for his technical knowledge. What about the executive chosen by popular vote? What was his training, conditioning, preparation for administrative responsibility, great or small? Or consider the problem of the executive faced with the official policy decisions embodied in legislation, legal interpretations, and the directives of his administrative superior.

Consider, again, the amount of time a Federal agency head spends appearing before Congressional committees, usually for entirely worthy purposes, but sometimes merely to gain publicity for some member of the Congress. Finally, think for a moment of the plight of a division head who finds that for his new boss he has been given a man completely antipathetic to the program which they are to administer together.

I hope the committee will continue to discuss the elements which are common to the administration of businesses, at least the most bureaucratized of them, government departments, and social agencies. I believe that this would be profitable. How do we stand in the three fields on such matters as recruitment, tests and evaluations, budgeting and accounting, electronic data processing, work units and units of cost, the measurement of progress, the relationship of the top "manager" to the "director," the reconciliation of "line and staff," the use of committees, new forms of communication, new ideas in public relations?

COMMON AND UNCOMMON ELEMENTS IN ADMINISTRATION

**A Report
to the National Conference on Social Welfare
by the Pittsburgh Area Committee
on Common Elements in Administration**

Mrs. Herbert F. Byrne, Board Member, Family Service

Dr. Dora F. Capwell, Director, Psychological Service of Pittsburgh

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Pittsburgh Committee Report

on Common and Uncommon Elements

in Administration*

JAMES D. THOMPSON

Chairman

Director of the University

Administrative Science Center

The use of committees and debate over their merits are two universal facts of life in all large organizations. It is not unusual for a committee to begin in confusion and perhaps apprehension, as this one did. It is remarkable, however, for a committee to learn as much as we have, and for a group representing as many different experiences and points of view as ours to approach the consensus this one has.

Our conclusions stem from two primary sources. First, we drew on one another's experiences and observations gained from a wide variety of vantage points—including administrative positions in federal, state, and local government, in voluntary social welfare agencies, in research organizations, labor organizations, in education, and in consultation with various industrial firms. Second, we turned from time to time to selected academic sources,** which helped to crystallize our thinking and focus our deliberations. These sources were not simply swallowed, however. The report to follow makes use of them, but we have modified and elaborated them out of our collective experiences.

We are convinced that administration in whatever setting has more elements in common than traditional beliefs recognize, and that the importance of these common elements generally is underestimated. While we recognize variations, we feel that the significant differences are not necessarily at those points in the administrative process that tradition assumes them to be. We are convinced that within a "field," such as business or social welfare, organizations also vary in important ways. The traditional classifications of organizations as business, governmental, medical, or welfare are not very precise categories, and may hide as much truth as they help one discover. Our question, therefore, is not whether there are differences among organizations—however classified—but whether and in what ways these differences are significant in the administration of the organization.

*This report represents deliberations over a period of two years. We wish to acknowledge the wise consultation of Mrs. Ella W. Reed, Consultant on Special Projects for the National Conference on Social Welfare.

**E. H. Litchfield, "Notes on a General Theory of Administration," Administrative Science Quarterly, June, 1956; Sol Levine and Paul E. White, "Exchange as a Conceptual Framework for the Study of Interorganizational Relationships," Administrative Science Quarterly, March, 1961; Talcott Parsons, "Some Ingredients of a General Theory of Formal Organizations" in Parsons, Structure and Process in Modern Society, Glencoe, Ill., 1959, J. D. Thompson and F. L. Bates, "Technology, Organization, and Administration," in Thompson, et al., Comparative Studies in Administration, Pittsburgh, 1959 and Robert W. Hawkes, "The Role of the Psychiatric Administrator," Administrative Science Quarterly, June, 1961.

Some Misleading Differences

It is not uncommon to hear that, because business administration is profit-centered and all other varieties are oriented toward non-profit service, business administration cannot be compared with other types. We doubt that reality supports this notion as well as tradition implies. That results can be precisely measured is a myth, neither true nor confined to the business world, although it is more often accepted uncritically in the business-financial environment than in others.

Every organization develops systems of accounting—of computing accomplishments—whether these are expressed in dollar terms on profit and loss statements, or in terms of placements made relative to need. The fact that custom and preference lead to one type of accounting scheme or another is much less significant than the fact that administrators in every type of organization seek ways of evaluating the organization's accomplishments—and must use them sensibly, remembering that every such scheme yields only an approximation and depends on arbitrary and even fictitious units of measurements, and that the values related to overall results cannot be assigned to individual members or small units within the organization.

It is also commonplace to hear that, because business has the "profit-motive," it attains an efficiency which is not achieved in other types of organizations. In our opinion, this distinction is faulty on several grounds. If by "efficiency" is meant an optimum ratio of results from energy (or resources) expended under stated conditions and within time constraints, then clearly efficiency is a concern to organizations of all types.

Whether expressed as a ratio of (a) production to cost, (b) service to cost, (c) therapy achieved to effort expended, or more generally as (d) an excess of gains over losses, "efficiency" is a ratio of output to input recognizing time restrictions. The mechanics of computing efficiency certainly differ. The conditions certainly differ also; the public school system may have a fixed ceiling on resources and attempt to get the greatest output from those resources, whereas some other type of organization may have a fixed demand, and attempt to meet that target with the greatest economy of resources. But the quest for efficiency applies in equal measure to organizations of all types.

Again we are told that civil service regulations or tenure arrangements protect the incompetent in other types of organizations, but not in business firms. And again, we feel that the distinction is overdrawn. Sorting out and eliminating incompetence and mediocrity is a universal problem for organizations, and civil service-like practices and tenure assumptions grow up, de facto or by employment contract, in large business firms as well as in governmental or educational organizations.

The sharp distinctions between business and other enterprises probably had more validity in an earlier period, but we must be careful not to compare the corporation of yesterday with the public or social welfare agency of today. Fixation on short-term profit as the only significant goal of the corporation is less frequent today than it once was. The diffusion of ownership, and the impact of such external forces as governments, universities, unions, public opinion, and political necessity have blunted short-term profit as the major criterion for corporate decision making. Demands for corporate perpetuation, the necessity of forward planning, and the growing multi-disciplinary nature of the decisions of the corporation have made impractical concentration of authority in one or a very few persons. Stereotyped concepts of the business firm may sharply differentiate it from other types of organizations, but the complexities of reality make the firm comparable to other organizations.

Some Necessary Distinctions

The sorts of trends just mentioned suggest a diffused type of control and administration in the business firm which is more like what one finds in government or institutional life than in the corporation of past years. As a consequence, differences in administrative characteristics tend to decline and common elements tend to increase. In seeking to identify elements of administration which are common to business, social welfare, government, education, and medicine, we quickly discovered that one of the least common elements is language usage. The same situation or occurrence might signify to

one of us "supervision" but imply "administration" to another, and "management" to still a third member of the committee. To overcome this barrier to effective exchange of experiences, we found it necessary to focus first on the functions of administration and then on the behavior of those holding major organizational responsibilities, and to ignore the terminology and labels diversely used in the field.

Even with this focus, it was necessary from time to time to give some labels to our topics, and to do this we had to adopt a few ground rules which will be employed in this report and explained as we go along.

At the outset we agreed to use a broad conception of "administration." If our report has a focal point it is on the "chief executive," but it became clear that in most instances the chief executive's role is one in a larger administrative process, and his role is in part defined by the other roles involved in that process. Even within a field—a single industry, for example—the chief executive's role varies considerably from one organization to another, or from time to time in the same organization, depending in part on how the administrative process is divided among a number of roles, and in part on the individual's conception or mental image of his role.

We believe, however, that if the administrative process is performed adequately, the areas of decision and the functions performed will be similar in all large organizations. We believe this also is true of the very small organization, where the total administrative process is the responsibility of one individual, but our deliberations have revolved around what we label as the diversified or "multi-disciplined" organization; that is, the type which includes two or more distinctly different professional or technical processes. An example may help at this point. A firm devoted solely to the manufacture of automobile batteries for one client would be a single-operation organization, whereas a firm devoted to the manufacture of several product lines, to research, and to sales would be a multi-disciplined organization. Similarly, the welfare agency concerned only with placing children in foster homes might be considered a single-purpose organization, whereas the agency which provides hospitalization, casework, and assistance programs would be a multi-disciplined or diversified organization.

The importance of this distinction will emerge later, but we want to make it clear now that we considered administration of the relatively large and relatively complex organizations in our several fields.

The Functions and Levels of Administration

We see three major functions performed by the administrative process, and we believe there usually is a close correspondence between these three functions and three general levels in the organizational hierarchy. (Figure 1) We called one important function "organization-directing" in the sense of discovering opportunities for the organization to satisfy needs or demands of the environment, and in the sense of winning environmental support for organizational goals—not in the narrow sense of issuing orders to members of the organization. This function is concerned with what the organization, as a total entity, is now, is becoming, and should become, and with making sure that the organization continues to fit into the changing scheme of things.

Normally we think of this organization-directing function as the responsibility of a board—of trustees or directors—or of a commission or a legislative body, such as a city council. But we also know that often the chief executive is the key member of such a group and that when the board or council does effectively discharge organization-directing responsibilities this fact frequently reflects the chief executive's capacity to energize his board or council. We believe that for the administrative process to operate effectively the chief executive must play an important part in the organization-directing function, and that this also enables him to link the directing function to the second of our three—"the organization-managing" function.

The organization-managing function is concerned with the sustenance of the organization as a total entity, that is, with acquiring, assigning, and planning for the orderly and coherent utilization of resources, namely finances, personnel, physical facilities and materials, and authority. The organization-managing function of the administrative process

does not accomplish the "ultimate" work of the organization, but it provides the ingredients, instructions, and climate essential to that ultimate work. It uses as one of its criteria the goals and objectives established in the organization-directing function, but it uses as another important criterion for decisions the realities of the technical and professional processes necessary to accomplish the "ultimate" work of the organization—operating the machinery which manufactures a product, calling on sales accounts, interviewing clients, treating patients, dispensing advice, etc. We do not conceive of these technologic behaviors as part of the administrative process as defined above; rather we believe the administrative process serves to give over-all direction and meaning to technologic and professional processes, and to acquire and regulate the use of resources required by technologic and professional activity. We do believe, however, that technical and professional actions must interlink with the administrative process, and it is at this point that we find the third major function of administration, which we refer to as the "supervisory" function.

In our view the supervisory function of administration governs the utilization of the resources provided by the organization-managing aspect of administration, and orients their utilization in the way outlined by the organization-directing function of administration. The supervisory function results in the coordination of technical or professional activities, making sure that these are done at appropriate times and places, and in generally accepted fashion.

To recapitulate: we find administrative roles at three major levels of the organization. At each level administration performs a different function, and each level overlaps with and links those above and below it.

Now in order to identify common elements of administration, and to compare administrative roles in different organizations, we must first determine which function of administration is involved in the roles in question. We cannot do this simply by comparing similarly-labeled roles, for the word "foreman" may be applied to one kind of role in one industrial firm, and to a different kind of role by another industrial firm. Similarly, we cannot assume that "foundry foreman" is equivalent in the administrative process to "casework supervisor"—or that it is not. The personnel manager may have one kind of role in this organization, and a rather different one in that organization. And so on.

We must emphasize, then, that in the following remarks we will be comparing roles in terms of the kinds of responsibilities outlined above—irrespective of the variety of labels which organizations may attach to those roles.

We believe there are significant elements in the supervisory function of administration which are common to large organizations in all fields. Whatever the technical and professional processes, those at the supervisory level deal with people and therefore must give attention to interpersonal communications practices, to motivation, to teaching and development, and to performance appraisal. More generally stated, concern with "human relations" is a common element of administration at the supervisory level, regardless of the field. A second important element at the supervisory level, common to all fields, is concerned with establishing work priorities, with shifting work loads as bottlenecks develop, with making sure that the activities of various technical specialists or professionals intermesh—in short, with coordination. A third common element at the supervisory level is in linking the technical and professional processes to the managerial function and managerial level of administration by anticipating future resource needs, negotiating with managers, and so on. These, we believe, are the three major components of supervisory roles, and are common to all types of large, complex organizations.

Jumping now over the managerial level to the organization-directing function and level of administration, we believe that some of the essential elements are common to all types of large organizations. Irrespective of the technological or professional bases of the organization, this function of administration identifies social, economic, and political trends which open new opportunities to the organization or pose new problems for it; it determines the elements of the environment to which the organization seeks to be related, and determines strategy for reacting to pressure groups or organized blocs in the environment. This is the broadest of the administrative functions, requiring consideration of the distant future.

Now we move back to the organization-managing function of administration. Here again the roles appear to us to be essentially the same in the several fields. Regardless of the technical or professional bases of administration, there are common needs for financial planning and management; personnel development; program planning, control and review; purchasing and property control, and so on. Even more important at the organization-managing level of the organization is the essential responsibility of meshing the several managerial activities into one cohesive whole which is both consistent with the over-all direction and policy established for the organization and supportive of the technological or professional processes required by that over-all direction. This problem of keeping the parts integrated into a whole is common, at the organization-managing level, to all types of large, complex organizations.

Some Major Differences

There is no denying that organizations differ from one another in recognizable and significant ways. The offices of a social insurance agency contrast sharply with the floor of the industrial foundry, and the hospital appears to be quite different from the bank. Not only do the physical appearances differ, but the skills and behavior of employees, the responsibilities, the tempo of the work, and the languages vary also.

Technologic/Professional Differences

To the casual observer the most striking differences stem from the technologic/professional activities of the organization, for at any given time these dictate whether, for example, the electronic computer, the steam turbine, the caseworker, or the medical team will be employed. That such differences also have consequences for the supervisory, managerial, and directing levels of administration cannot be disputed.

The technology appropriate to a particular goal or set of objectives governs the ratio of human to non-human resources needed by the organization. The automated production line, for example, calls for a heavy investment in capital equipment and relatively few human operators, whereas the casework agency relies largely on human abilities and relatively small investment in plant and equipment. In the first case, we would expect questions of long-range investment, depreciation, and preventive maintenance to lay large claims on administrative attention. In the other case, we should find matters of personnel recruitment, development and motivation looming large.

Where the technology involves the standardized processing of non-human materials, we would expect the regulated flow of pre-sorted and pre-treated materials, and the stockpiling and warehousing of finished products, to be a second focus of attention. But where organizational "treatments" are applied directly to clientele, as in the school, the hospital, or the casework agency, we would expect more concern to be directed to questions of accurate diagnosis, flexibility in prescription, and an orderly and timely sequence of treatments.

Where a technology is addressed to standardized transformation of standardized, inert materials, elaborate standards and specifications can be developed, and close attention can be paid to control over quantity, quality, and cost. Where the technology rests on the judgment and ingenuity of professional personnel, quantitative controls over quality, quantity, and cost are more difficult, and standardization and routinization can easily block achievement of organizational objectives.

Differences in Client Relations

Every organization, if it is to persist, must have recipients for its services or products. The salesman must have customers, the teacher must have pupils, the prison guard must have prisoners, the caseworker must have clients, and the playground supervisor must have participants. But to say that each type of organization must have recipients must not hide the fact that the relation of the organization to its clientele or potential clientele may vary tremendously from one case to another.

We have already noted, in our consideration of technologic or professional differences, that the client to a professional organization "intrudes" into the production process through interaction with the professional. This is because, in the helping professions, "production" and "distribution" cannot be sharply divorced. But differences between "intrusion" and "separation" do not exhaust the significance of client relations.

Whether the organization must seek out and convince potential clients, on the one hand, or, on the other, respond to and meet the needs of claimants seems to us to be a significant variable. The potential customer in a highly competitive economic setting has not only several choices of firms but, perhaps, of salesmen within firms. He not only has a range of alternatives but may ignore any one of these without peril. Moreover, he may enter into a relationship but terminate it at any moment, before completion of a transaction. At the other extreme, the public school can exercise compulsion and usually need not be concerned with finding pupils, but rather with finding and allocating buildings, staff, and budget to meet the demand thrust upon it. At one extreme the volume of production is given and distribution effort is geared accordingly; at the other extreme, the demand is given and administrative energy is switched to problems of production.

Between these extremes various kinds of organizations very widely. Significantly, the position of a particular organization can change in this respect. In the public health and social service fields, the notion of case-finding leads to a departure from earlier notions that the agency responds to demand. When it becomes clear that early treatment can prevent more serious problems, the role of the agency in creating demand and finding clients becomes significant. In certain communities this becomes a problem for public schools. With an influx of families from regions where school attendance norms are not well developed, the public school system may find it necessary to search out those who belong in school, or to discourage high school drop-outs.

Whether client relations are fleeting or prolonged, anonymous or personal, are other important dimensions. The organization with a stable clientele can rely on goodwill to solve many of its problems; at the same time, if it abuses goodwill it may not only lose an individual transaction but all future transactions with the particular client. But the organization which dispenses its product during a brief encounter with a stranger is more likely to rely on merchandising techniques, catering to the whims and convenience of potential clientele, and stressing visibility and availability.

A third important variable concerns the tangibility of the product. Where the results desired by the client are known to him and can be specified in advance, he can make rather accurate estimates in advance of the transaction, can test the product against specifications, and if necessary, demand adjustments. The organization can, under these conditions, guarantee satisfaction. But where the results of the organization's efforts are less tangible—as in education, personal counseling, or mental therapy—neither the organization nor the client can so measurably specify in advance what the end product will be or should be, nor can success or failure be reliably documented at the completion of treatment. This type of client relation, then, is fraught with doubts, and if the relationship is necessarily prolonged, problems of maintaining contact and rapport are likely to crop up again and again throughout the treatment process.

External Relations

Clients—customers, pupils, cases—are part of the external world to which an organization must relate, and satisfying or helping the client often is given as the raison d'être of the organization. But every organization operates in a network of relations with others and the patterns of these external relations are significant for administration.

Sources of financing constitute one of the important variables. Business firms usually can expect the customer to pay the full cost of the product or service—if he buys at all—so that costing and pricing become of central concern. The university and the hospital tend to collect only fractions of the cost of service from the client and to rely on private gifts or public tax money for the remainder. Still other organizations, such as the public school and some welfare agencies, recover none of their costs directly from the client and support themselves by public taxation or, via annual fund drives, by private

taxation. Whether financial support comes from the investing public, the taxpaying public, the contributing public, or the fee-paying public, this support must be won and rewon on the basis of past performance and promise for the future. Financing is problematic in each case, even though the uncertainty connected with it takes a different form. The financial problem also can change significantly for particular organizations. When an agency provides services only for the indigent, client-fees as a source of income are inconceivable. But with the redefinition of clientele to include potentially the entire community, as in the case of family counselling or health clinics, client-fees can become important sources of revenue, and administrators face new problems in determining procedures for charging full or partial costs to the client.

The reputation or "public image" enjoyed by an organization is another significant variable, affecting the willingness of various elements of the social fabric to patronize the organization, to provide it with resources, and to cooperate with it. The problem is one of multiple images rather than a single reputation. These public images often are mediated by more or less organized bodies employing conflicting criteria. For the corporation, for example, the "decision" of the investing public may be formed by the action of institutional investing organizations whose "analysts" subject the corporation to irritating scrutiny, whereas the contributing public's "decision" with respect to a particular agency may be mediated by a United Fund Board or the taxpaying public's "decision" is formed by a legislature or budget committee. For each type of organization, its image among clientele or potential clientele may be formed on very different grounds, and its image as a place to work in still other ways. The management of its several reputations becomes particularly difficult when the organization is engaged primarily in professional activities, for the lay groups which mediate public opinion find it difficult to judge the organization on true merit and instead are likely to judge it on irrelevant or uncertainly-evaluated factors.

The organization's recognized domain also is a significant variable. By this we refer to its role in a larger process, as recognized by other organizations involved in that process. The world looks very different, for example, to the business firm holding a prime contract than it does to the "satellite" firm which receives subcontracts. For the business firm, however, there usually is more freedom to renegotiate or change its domain than we find in other types of organizations. The firm dissatisfied with its associates in the larger process—those who supply it or receive its products—may search for new associates; and the firm unhappy about its role in the system may be able to change it by diversifying. For the governmental agency, however, the legislative mandate may spell out what classes of services are to be provided for which groups in the population, and getting a mandate revised often is a very difficult matter. The voluntary welfare agency must stake out and defend its claims in terms of diseases or problems covered, population served, and services rendered, and it must convince lay boards and other specialized agencies that such claims are legitimate. Because the governmental agency and the voluntary agency often are confined to a particular geographic territory, they are less free than the typical firm to search for new partners or sever an alliance. Instead, they must battle it out on the home grounds, get along in the alliance after the battle, and prepare always for new skirmishes ahead.

Thus we find three areas of important variations among organizations: (1) technologic or professional, (2) client relations, and (3) external relations. These, we feel, can affect the relative importance and difficulty of the common elements of administration.

Transferability of Administrative Know-How

One of the questions which persisted through all of our deliberations was the extent to which administrative ability is or can be transferred from one field to another. Are the differences more important than the common elements? In answering this, it helped to distinguish between the transfer of administrative techniques and the transfer of administrators. We are aware of instances of both, but it seems probable that the transfer of administrative techniques is the more frequent and easier.

Systems and procedures developed in one field frequently have been adopted and adapted by others, and we think it is likely that this kind of diffusion will increase in the future. It is generally true that for each field to discover by trial and error what has already been refined in another field is uneconomical; the belief that each field is entirely unique can be a major deterrent to the economy of borrowing. The fact does not discourage us, for within fields refinements are constantly being developed and systems modified to fit evolving technologies and changing circumstances.

With respect to the transferability of individuals, the picture is more complicated, for there are several kinds of transfers possible. At the level of organization-directing, the practice of appointing individuals from one field to responsibilities in quite a different kind of field is widespread. It is not unusual for an individual to be a "board member" in several distinctly different fields, and where individuals are selected for their competence—rather than for prestige or on the basis of occupational history—they can bring new insights and stimulation to the organization. At the supervisory and organization-managing levels of administration, one important factor in the question of transferability is the evolutionary stage of the fields involved.

Supervisory Level

Where the evolution of diversified or multi-disciplined organizations has been recent and rapid, supervisory roles may be built by adding to professional or technical roles, so that the supervisor is viewed merely as a super-technician or super-professional. When this is true, the supervisor in Department "A" is automatically disqualified from moving to Department "B" which uses another variety of professional skills. But when the evolution has progressed far enough to have clearly distinguished between supervisory roles and professional roles, the multi-disciplined organization frequently finds it desirable to transfer supervisors from one type of department to another, and indeed might be inefficient if it refused to consider the possibility.

Even where the supervisory role has been distinguished from the professional or technologic role, there are distinct limits to transferability. Where the appropriate technology calls for a low ratio of human to non-human resources, the supervisory concern may focus on relating personnel to machines and to work flows, and on care of machines. Where the technology is lodged mainly in human resources the protection and development of human capacities will be a dominant supervisory concern.

These, of course, are relative differences. In both cases personnel development and motivation are essential, just as consideration of work flows cannot be neglected. At the level of tactics, the supervisory jobs are very different; at the level of strategy, the differences seem less important. Similarly when we consider the organization's problems of "distribution." The tactics of relating salesmen to customer appear very different from those of relating professionals to clients, but the strategy of supervision calls in both cases for supervising relationships with clientele.

This suggests to us that the tactical requirements of supervisory roles will limit the transfer of supervisors to roles where the technologies are closely related, but that strategic understanding and knowledge can be much more widely shared and exchanged.

Organization-Managing Level

The evolutionary stage of the organization is equally important here. In the rapidly evolving organization, organization-managing positions may be viewed as super-supervisory positions, with the responsibilities and activities of those in managerial positions reflecting the peculiarities of the technical bases of the organization. During this period of evolution the organization is likely to have difficulties, with managers giving too much attention to operational details, or too little attention to the acquisition and control of resources, or both. During this stage of evolution there are likely to be growing pains in the form of controversy over the importance of technical or professional expertise as a qualification for organization-managing roles. We believe this is a temporary issue, however, for the continued expansion and diversification of technical knowledge

will cause greater size and complexity of organizations in all fields, and will make mandatory the recognition of managerial roles as distinct from expert roles.

We have said that the organization-managing function is concerned with the sustenance of the organization as a total entity, with acquiring, assigning, and planning for the orderly and coherent utilization of resources to achieve organizational objectives. Important differences in this function show up when we contrast organizations. The purchase of materials and the scheduling of their flow through a production process may loom large in the total managerial concerns of one organization, but require only occasional attention in another. Professional staffing and development may be a dominant managerial concern in one organization and of relatively less concern in another.

These differences are ones of emphasis, however. Despite the relative importance, no organization can neglect the acquisition of materials essential to its objectives, or the effective allocation and control over the use of those materials, nor can it escape considering manpower needs as those are defined by their particular goals and technologies. Knowledge and experience in the technologic or professional aspects of the organization's main work, then, are less important in the ability to cope with management problems, than is comprehension of the interrelationships of technical, clientele, and internal and external aspects of the organization.

The role of chief executive is particularly important in this respect. As organizations become multi-disciplined, and as they recognize the need for managerial specialists of various types, it becomes impossible for the chief executive to have expert knowledge of the several technical processes, client relations, or external relations. In these complicated organizations, then, the chief executive must be able to comprehend for administrative purposes a variety of things, and he must be able to fit them together. This is a "generalist" role, and indeed, the chief executive with expert knowledge in one of the organization's operations may be handicapped in behaving as a generalist—at least until his specialized technical knowledge has faded into memory or been subjected to self-control.

We believe that usually the chief executive first becomes one by transferring from some more specialized managerial role. In the early stages of an organization's evolution it frequently is the case that only those who at some point have been identified directly with the basic technology of the organization are considered qualified to step into the chief executive role. When the organization becomes multi-disciplined, any of several technical starting points may "qualify" an individual for consideration as a chief executive. When such organizations mature, however, it seems to us that the starting point and the route taken by the individual become of much less importance. Entering the organization by way of one of the managerial specialties, such as finance or personnel, may prepare the individual for executive responsibilities just as well as entering through one or another of the professions associated with the "ultimate work" of that organization.

We know that this view is not fully accepted in all quarters, but we believe it will become increasingly evident that the abilities of the individual, rather than arbitrary credentials, must be the basis of administrative selection—and that these abilities can be acquired in various ways.

The distinction is more clearly demonstrated at the organization-directing level where individuals may be quite effective without having had prior experience in the field. This is in spite of the fact that organizational differences in sources of financing, in public image, and in domain show up especially well at the organization-directing level.

All organizations potentially intrude into the domain of others, constantly competing and periodically negotiating for a "share of the market," or for, jurisdiction, or for clientele. The aluminum industry now produces automobile components once preempted by the steel industry, and steel invades the furniture domain where wood formerly was unchallenged. Boys' Clubs, Boy Scouts, church clubs, "Y"s and school extra-curricular organizations compete for the time and energy of neighborhood boys, as well as for financial support by the community. The various armed services compete within the Pentagon for jurisdiction over new weapon systems and over outer space. Related disciplines compete with one another for the right to provide certain types of therapy or over the relative efficiencies of various therapeutic procedures.

All organizations thus constitute power and are potential misusers of power. All, therefore, face efforts by elements of the environment to guard against misuse, or otherwise limit the use of power. Whether this takes the form of governmental regulation of business, legislative investigation of executive agencies, "studies" by special consultants or accrediting groups, the effects on the administrative process are parallel. Considerations of external relations call in each case for consideration of the relatively distant future, for identification of broad trends, for strategy in reacting to pressures, and for maintaining organizational coherence and integrity in a heterogeneous environment whose diverse pressures would otherwise fragment the organization.

The Transferability of Executives

It should be clear that we believe those who emphasize the differences in administration of various fields have failed to identify the fundamentals of the administrative process. We have also indicated our conviction that abilities rather than credentials—the true merit system—should govern the selection of administrators in any field. And we have sketched out the kinds of abilities, at each of three levels, which we believe are significant for administration.

We have indicated distinct limits to the transferability of supervisors and suggested that, while transfer poses difficulties at all levels, the limitations grow less severe as the individual moves to managing and finally to directing levels. This conclusion is based on a conviction that the knowledge component—what the administrator knows about the technologic or professional processes of the organization and about the context in which that organization operates—becomes relatively less important in the total requirement as we move from supervisory to managerial to directing levels.

We do not imply that every administrator is qualified to shift fields. We know of instances where the results have been disastrous, just as we know of examples where the results have been outstanding. We do suspect, however, that transfer among fields can profitably occur more often than it has in the past—with wider opportunities for organizations to recruit. The readiness of an individual for responsibilities in a new field, we suspect, depends on answers to two questions: What does the man need to bring to the job? And what does the field demand?

What Does the Man Bring to the Job? The administrator is a human being rather than a collection of skill or knowledge components, and there is a risk involved in the attempt to isolate certain kinds of abilities. The three to be suggested are not mutually exclusive; they overlap and they are difficult to identify and measure. They are discussed separately only to facilitate thinking about them.

What we have described as the functions of administration requires ability to recognize and solve problems. Establishment and modification of routines—or regular patterns of action—is a necessary facet of administration, but the individual who subordinates himself to routine is abdicating his responsibilities, and the "adaptability" mentioned earlier is missing. Nor is it sufficient to be able to solve problems. The able administrator must anticipate problems and be able to recognize and delineate problems before they grow to the point where he is forced to give them attention. This ability to recognize and solve problems is as important for the administrator who remains within a field as for the individual who transfers, and problem-solving ability is not unique to any of the fields under consideration here.

A second requirement might be termed leadership, by which we mean integrity and conviction as well as the ability to persuade and inspire respect and to be decisive when decisiveness is appropriate. The "operator" who views his organization as a platform for personal accomplishments will not consistently promote that organization or its mission. The unconvincing administrator will take the path of least resistance, responding opportunistically but inconsistently to various forces. But this is true whether the administrator remains with a field or switches. And we must emphasize our belief that leadership is not necessarily correlated with pre-eminence in a profession. It is as easy for the professionally-certified administrator to subvert the organization's mission to the fads and doctrines of the profession as it is for the "outsider" to misunderstand the mission and opportunities.

The third requirement, we suggest, is perceptiveness. This includes the ability to recognize relationships, to think abstractly, to distinguish similarities and differences, and to sort important from irrelevant factors in a situation. Whether or not the individual moves from one field to another, he needs to be able to identify the underlying assumptions he has been able to make from his past experience and to recognize that these assumptions may—or may not—be appropriate in a new situation. This involves his understanding of the basic processes and responsibilities of administration, and his ability to distinguish and subordinate specific behavior patterns (both in himself and in others) from what we have referred to as fundamentals. Without such insight and perceptiveness it is doubtful that an administrator can successfully change fields—but it is equally doubtful that he can remain in a dynamic organization and perform effectively. No one field has a corner on perceptiveness, but there is some reason to believe that it is enhanced by transfer from one field to another, just as foreign travel or the study of primitive societies may help us better understand our own. Whether the executive transfers or not, the characteristic we have in mind is found only in those with catholic interests.

What Does a Field Demand? The most important demand which an organization must place on its administrators, we believe, is one of value commitment. Unless the individual's personal convictions are consistent with the objectives or mission of the field, his leadership abilities will be wasted or, worse, exercised at cross-purposes to the organization. This requirement is problematic whether the field recruits from outside or internally, for the appropriate value commitment is not guaranteed by degrees or credentials. Not infrequently the certificated individual is committed to maintenance of the status quo or to traditional procedures, rather than to aggressive pursuit of new levels of achievement. Commitment to an out-dated version of a field's values can be disastrous.

A second requirement which may be levied by a field upon its administrators is the knowledge component referred to earlier. This requirement is more significant at lower administrative levels than at higher ones, more important in small single-operation organizations than in large, multi-discipline organizations, and more imperative during the early evolution of a field than when it becomes well-recognized. When an organization does not lie at either extreme of those considerations, we believe the transfer of executives from nearby or adjacent fields may be quite feasible, but that recruitment from highly different fields poses greater difficulties. For the diversified, well-established organization, administrative understanding as distinct from technical competence in the appropriate skills can be rather readily acquired by an alert administrator.

Conclusions

A serious impediment to the most effective allocation of administrative talent in our society is the parochialism which we see in each field. The traditions behind such parochialism are strong. We are told that the individual who has "never met a payroll" could not possibly administer a firm. It is said that he who has never taught classes certainly could not administer a school, and one who has not done casework could not possibly qualify as a social welfare administrator. Such traditions often are reinforced by formal or informal regulations which require professional certification.

We have indicated our conviction that the distinction between technical-professional activities and administrative activities has been inadequate, but that it is emerging gradually in our several fields. But where this distinction is not yet clear, the most dedicated and gifted administrator who lacks traditional credentials may fail. The emphasis on tradition is reinforced by the factor of vested interests—by the belief that the "limited opportunities" for the "top jobs" should be earmarked as a reward for those who start in the field and give it long, loyal service.

We believe there are several trends which will gradually bring about more effective utilization of administrative resources in our society, through increased transfer of administrators among fields:

- A. The broadening and liberating educational base of our society is reducing the parochialism we have noted. Increasingly professional education is being pre-

- ceded by liberal education, and the professional schools themselves are becoming less vocational under the impact of the basic academic disciplines.
- B. The distinction between technologic or professional competence and administrative competence is emerging more clearly, as our organizations become more complex and activities are more clearly centered in specialized roles.
 - C. The vested interest in maintaining monopoly control over administrative positions will be offset, in part, by the development of prestigious and rewarding opportunities in the technologic or professional field, so that administration is not the only way "to the top." Some experimentation with "scientific ladders" is underway in segments of industry, and we find signs of this sort of development in education and hospitals as well as in government.
 - D. Finally, the complexity of our times and the rapidity of change are gradually shifting attention from "limited opportunities" to a realization of the unlimited demand for competent, dedicated, insightful administrators.

In conclusion, we believe that the most effective allocation of administrative talents will come only with the development of administration itself as a recognized professional field, to be combined with other professional competencies.

Discussion of the Pittsburgh Committee Report

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We are indeed indebted to the Pittsburgh Area Committee on Common Elements in Administration for its report.

The Report divides administration into three functional levels; the Directing level where goals and criteria are established, the Managing level which is concerned with the sustenance of the organization, that is, with acquiring, assigning and planning the utilization of finances, personnel, physical facilities and materials and authority; and the Supervisory level which coordinates technical or professional activities, making sure that these are done at appropriate times and places. Thus, administrative roles are found at three major levels of the organization; each level performs a different function; and each level overlaps with and links those above and below it.

The Report proceeds to describe some major differences in administrative functioning in business, labor, government and social welfare. It holds out hope for the successful transferability of administrative know-how among these administrative entities, as well as the similarly successful transferability of executives.

The Committee believes that the most effective allocation of administrative talents will come only with the development of administration itself as a recognized professional field, to be combined with other professional competencies.

Despite its preliminary and tentative exploration, the Report is an important contribution to social welfare administration and, I trust, to the other administrative organizations as well. It is to be hoped that the Pittsburgh Area Committee will continue its deliberations.

Speaking for the public welfare agency, I would ask the Committee to give consideration to what I see now as rather distinctive differences. For example, in the whole matter of financing the organization's program, the public welfare agency finds itself in competition for funds with other units within its governmental setting. There is always a limit to the amount of money which a mayor, or county executive, or governor can

allocate to his several agencies. Then, too, the budgeting process and request for funds in public agencies is very visible and subject to challenge not only by the chief executive's budget director, but by a partisan public as well. Of course, one can say that there is competition for funds for the business organization also, but this is in large part controllable by the quality of its product. The choice of developing a new market or even going out of business is not available to the public agency.

The success or failure of the public welfare agency's budget request depends in large degree upon the quality of its public image. The blame for lack of public understanding rests with the administrators of the public welfare programs who have failed to convince people of the value of the services they render. Further elements for comparison and study might include the development of policy, which in the governmental agency becomes public policy; and the democratic nature of administration in the public agency in which every staff member administers a part of the program.

In the few minutes remaining I would like to go back to my earlier statement about our inability to develop a precise definition of administration. There comes to mind a statement by Harold Silver in the 1954 Social Work Year Book which reads as follows:

"Administration deals with and operates through people, as is obvious in the direct service to clients, in the management of staff, or in activities of boards and committees. But even in tasks involving primarily the manipulation of things—as the physical layout of our office, storing of supplies, spacing of typewriter desks—an administrator deals with the individuals who occupy the offices, who need to have access to the supplies, or who use the typewriters. This is so true that administration might be briefly if inadequately described as the art of human relationships."

For my own part I do not believe that a description of administration as an art would be an inadequate one. Perhaps the very reason why we have had difficulty in defining administration is one of the best proofs that it is an art. I am sure that I do not need to remind you of the elusive nature of art which so often obscures its real appreciation and makes of it a very personal experience for all of us.

How many administrators do we know who play-act their roles, carrying out their responsibilities without personal conviction, without seeing their job as a professional task in its fullest sense, and with little or no dedication to the ethical and humanitarian ideals of social work. By the same token, how few administrators do we know who accept their roles as enablers, who concern themselves with every aspect of administration, who have acquired and utilize an appreciation of the sociological and psychological principles of human behavior, and through this assure effective teamwork between persons and groups, both within the agency and out in the community at large. In this way a wide variety of tasks are performed successfully at different levels of responsibility.

This leads me to express the opinion that in our attempts at definition of administration we have left out a very essential ingredient—and that is style. Webster defines style as "the distinctive or characteristic mode of presentation, construction, or execution in any art, employment or product, especially in any fine art. The quality which gives distinctive character and excellence to artistic expression." Perhaps a few illustrations are needed to complete this analogy.

In two public welfare districts programs have just been established for retraining of welfare recipients for employment. These range in content all the way from instruction in reading and writing for the illiterate, to actual training in new and marketable skills in accordance with community needs. Both programs are mandatory by law for recipients who are assigned to them.

One administrator has stressed the mandatory feature.

The other administrator has stressed the purpose of his retraining program, which is to return employable clients to self-support. The first phase of his program involves referring the recipients to the State Employment Service Office for testing, counseling, placement, or recommendation for retraining in a specified marketable skill for which they appear potentially trainable. The mandatory feature is mentioned but not stressed.

There is a marked contrast in style in the instances of these two administrators. The first one would appear to be appealing to all elements of the community in terms of attitudes toward welfare recipients. There is something here for those people who want to see recipients forced to undergo training for employment as well as something for

those members of the community who want to see this kind of service offered to recipients who need it and who can profit by it.

The second administrator has established a training program which is recipient-centered and which has a basis in sound educational approach. It is clear that the testing and counseling part of the program is calculated to enlist recipient interest and cooperation. Consideration is being given to retraining for jobs which are already available in the community.

I am sure that some of you will want to characterize more acceptable administrative behaviors as "sophisticated," or "indicative of better administrative know-how," or belonging to the "creative and imaginative personality"—but I would prefer to maintain that they typify "exemplary administrative style."

It is to be expected that every administrator will master the technical details of his job since this, too, can be accomplished through knowledge, training and experience. He will then be free to develop a style which will give distinctive character and excellence to his performance. To undertake the discipline and hard work to acquire proper style, there must be an underlying desire and will to want to do well.

This is analogous to the manner of approach to any activity whether it is a profession or one's hobby. The degree of conviction as to the importance of what one wants to accomplish will direct the amount of thought, care and ingenuity in planning the sought-after goals.

HILDA TEBOW

I hope that my role as discussant will not so becloud the clear and cogent thesis just presented by Dr. Thompson on behalf of the Pittsburgh Committee. Behind the word barriers and parochialism, the folk lore and technology lie certain great similarities which especially in complex enterprises, whether business, governmental, or in the social agencies field, admit the increasing possibility of the interchange of executive personnel, at least at the highest levels.

The technology of a particular field, too, may prove less of a barrier in the future once the lowest levels of administration are passed through. As Dr. Thompson has so ably pointed out, that technology in business which is of such a specialized knowledge that it cannot be acquired in on the job training is already requiring that businesses set up a special achievement ladder so that pre-eminence in a professional technical competence may be recognized apart from the question of the position in the executive hierarchy that such skill may command. Finally, the elements of seniority as experienced in a promotion from within policy may tend to have less strength especially among organizations which are expanding to satisfy an increasing need; or those in which the business engaged in is taking new directions.

Dr. Thompson and the Committee have realistically assessed the fact that a folk lore exists in each field in which efforts are made to throw up a protective screen of know-how which cannot somehow be transferred to outsiders is used as rationale for not bringing in the outside executive. This type of resistance would be especially strong in those organizations which have not experienced much expansion in their service or product recently so that the competition for the top positions was experience limited. The emerging role of the chief executive as a "generalist" is one that has been widely recognized for it becomes apparent that in a complex organization of any sort no one person can be in command of all the skills necessary to perform the various functions which must be accomplished. This new generalist executive must recognize and solve problems, exhibit leadership, and have perceptiveness and ability to react to new relationships. In addition, he must have a value commitment to the demand of his work in his chosen field and some knowledge component. Once we have the outline of our chief executive, therefore, we can sketch in the remainder of the pattern which is that all complex organizations must be founded on a planning, organizing, integrating, and meas-

uring basis. Within these areas three levels of administration prevail from top to bottom—directing, management, and supervision. These general principles would seem to be clear whether we discuss business, government, or social services. It is only when we get into a particular area in some depth that we see the problem. For instance, the Committee and Dr. Thompson admit that where we are seeking to measure or evaluate performance it is extremely difficult to evaluate personal counselling or mental therapy in terms of the usual statistical standards, whereas a business operated for profit can always look to earnings per share or other typical standards for confirmation of whether or not management has done a good job.

In the preparation of personnel for executive jobs, we probably find that most executives in business, government, and social work come to their job without adequate training.

Some major business organizations have studied the problem for years, testing and evaluating their executives to see what makes them tick. No one seems brave enough to lay out the precise mold for "what is an executive" although great precision can be achieved in what we want him to do. Leadership is a large ingredient yet a recent Ohio State University Study could not give it definitive qualities.

Perceptiveness, or the ability to cope with the forces in your environment on the basis of past experience and certain inherent skill, is another quality we would like our executive to have. How do we successfully pre-test for this?

Another quality is the ability to recognize and solve problems. We say glibly that the routine administrator will not qualify here. But how about his counterpart, the perpetual idea man who consistently and relentlessly creates windmills to tilt with, or whose routine administration is such that new problems emerge which he is able to somehow solve. He is the loyal fellow who sticks with you through all the problems you wouldn't have had if you hadn't hired him in the first place. These are extreme examples but they do indicate that pre-measurement of this quality may entail some considerable difficulty.

Education has taken a hand here, however, and the case method is a most popular technique for exploring the application of principles to reality. Businessmen undertaking continuing education are subjected to this technique at Arden House, the University of Colorado, and Harvard Business School to name a few institutions.

All of this brings me to my last point which is to doubt whether we can count on developing a class of administrators whose sole function is to perform the administrative process and effectively employ material resources and the technical and professional skills of others. Because executives in social agencies traditionally achieve pre-eminence in their specialized fields and then become top manager of a complex agency, I do not believe it unfair to say that the idea of the separate administrative class ought to be most appealing to them. These executives are still largely preoccupied with the individual case approach and may lack the understanding of the need for broad policy leadership. We do not expect to find the same awareness of management consciousness in the administration of old age homes, nursing homes, and chronic hospitals caring for the aged, for instance, as we do in competitive business. However, many businesses have tried and discontinued the so-called "trainee programs," preferring to test their future executives against the practical hardness of the line job to determine whether in addition to the recognizable, measurable hallmarks of the executive, he can exhibit those intangibles of leadership, perception and problem solving ability. Formal training in administration may be a valuable background for the manager of a social agency, but the gulf which would exist between those professionals in the field and an administrator without practical experience in the primary service offered could preclude his being effective.

If there is a management lag in applying the techniques of scientific management to social agencies, then something must be done, if social agencies are to remain responsive to community demands for service. The report of the Pittsburgh Committee deserves most careful attention for it certainly points a way to achieving modern management excellence.

Analysis and Observation

on New York Area and Pittsburgh

Committee Reports

WAYNE VASEY

Anyone studying the elements of administration in social welfare is confronted by the problem of a paucity of content developed specifically for and by the field. It is becoming increasingly evident that more content is needed. The profession of social work is moving past the point at which it can assume that ability to administer is simply a fortuitous constellation of personal qualities which enable the practitioner to take on this differential role. Furthermore, adaptation of material distilled from the experience in other fields has been found to have its limits as well as its value. Evidence of concern over this dearth of material in administration of social welfare is expressed in the shape of the newly formed Council on Administration of the National Association of Social Workers and the increasing emphasis on inclusion of specific content on administration in the curriculum offerings of professional schools.

The fact that social work is showing signs of developing its own content, however, does not preclude an interchange of experience with business and with public administration. There is no point in neglecting to learn from the experience of others. There also is the large and persistent question of whether there is a distinctive content or core of administration common to all fields of service. This has proved the basis for polemical discourse for years, between those who contend that there is such a distinct and separate content and those who insist that the similarities are over-shadowed by the distinctive features of the problems and the needs of each type of service. It is all the more difficult to separate prejudice from fact in this discourse because of the lack of complete acceptance of the fact of distinctive content in administration by the field of social work itself.

It is not too surprising that both the Pittsburgh and New York groups found much in common in the administration of public services, business, and voluntary social welfare. There is a probability at least that there is a core of administrative methodology and of philosophy and skill which seem to be applicable wherever organizations exist to render a service. It is also quite possible that the distinctive "uncommon" features may be of decisive importance in determining how much transferability of content or personnel or both is possible among those performing the executive function in these three classifications of service. The common features are visible. Whether the uncommon components are a part of the iceberg below the surface but of more significance than the visible part is still uncertain. It is not surprising that both committees seem to be somewhat less sure in dealing with the uncommon elements than with the common aspects.

It is not my purpose to undertake an exhaustive analysis or to offer a complete critique of the two reports as such. Rather, I propose to summarize some of the impressions and conclusions of the two committees to determine what is indicated in the way of future steps to further the work which these two committees have so usefully and competently begun.

Beginning with the Pittsburgh report, I certainly agree with John Keppler (see discussion of paper May 28, 1962 National Conference on Social Welfare) that there is laudable beginning of definitions. We may be too prone to approach this subject in a manner suggested by Bertrand Russell's description of electricity to the effect that it is "better known for what it does than for what it is." In administration at least, even if the same is not true of electricity, we need to give some attention to what it is. The classifications of "organization directing," "organization management," and "supervision" provide a useful base on which to begin the analysis of the elements of administration in the three areas of business, public administration, and voluntary social welfare.

Anyone who has struggled through the turgid and obscure descriptions of the administrative process (e.g., podscorb) is most likely to be grateful for this classification. However, before we seize upon definitions as answers to questions, we should realize that the Committee actually points out that these are not clear-cut, mutually exclusive categories of function, but rather that they are overlapping with linkage of all levels. It would be unfortunate if it were assumed that organization directing, the process of keeping the enterprise attuned to the demand of external environment, as well as its internal demands, is vested exclusively in a board or even in a shared relationship between a board and executive, or, in organizations lacking a board, in the office of the executive. It would be similarly unfortunate if it were inferred that this is a function entirely separate from the concerns of management.

This report does not deal at any length with the process of policy determination and the extent to which policy development is concentrated or diffused throughout the organization. Nor does the report deal at all completely with the nature of the pressure for change which society brings to bear on any type of structure. This would certainly be a fruitful area for exploration, and it would be interesting to compare the relative responsiveness of the three types of organizations to environmental pressures and their dependence upon the external environment for the direction of the mission of the organization.

The Pittsburgh Area Committee performs an especially useful service in disposing of some of the shibboleths about business that have interfered with the realistic examination of the benefits which experience of business administration could offer other forms of enterprise. The commonplace myths about the more precise accountability of business, its allegedly greater efficiency resulting from its profit centered activation, and its presumed stricter emphasis on competent performance from its personnel need to be dispelled if business is to make its best contribution to other kinds of administration and if it is to learn from them.

The discussion from pages 26 to 28 on "The functions and levels of administration" is another valuable contribution. The identification with some precision of the common elements is one of the best treatments that I have ever seen, and I find little room for argument with the fundamental content of this section. What I do find, however, is something which should be intensively studied with a view to enlarging the knowledge which this particular section presents. After all, this report is in a very real sense a presentation of the cumulative wisdom of the members of the Committee augmented by certain literature which has been developed in the field. There undoubtedly needs to be further refinement of these classifications but the delineation itself seems to hold up and to be a valid expression of the actual nature of the functions performed through the administrative process.

In considering the major differences among these three categories of organizations, the Pittsburgh Committee raises a question which must pertain present problems to any student of this subject. This is the question of the possibility that differences within these classes may be at least as important as distinctions among them. In a conference last year of the American Society for Public Administration, I was struck by a discussion which brought out the "uncommon elements" in field service among the National Aeronautics and Space Administration, Bureau of Internal Revenue, the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, and others or for that matter between any two units of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. The question which emerges from this kind of discussion is one of whether the differences are so much in the general character of

the enterprise, i.e., business or government, as in the nature of the service itself. Actually some of these governmental services seem to be closer to business in much of their rationale for organizational method than to public administration.

The question of the extent to which the nature of the product influences the shape of the organization and the development of its major features is really not answered by this report and is one of the subjects which is suggested for intensive study. There is a question, for example, of whether public welfare is closer in its nature to voluntary social welfare than it is to other forms of public administration. It would seem that a public child welfare agency would be more related to voluntary child welfare services than to the National Aeronautics and Space Administration. There needs to be more attention given to the question of the influence of the product on the shape of administration.

The Pittsburgh report suggests one part of such a study on page 28 which has a statement to the effect that elaborate standards and specifications are much more possible when a technology is addressed to "standardized transformation of standardized inert materials" than where technology "rests on the judgment and ingenuity of professional personnel." In the latter case it is noted "standardization and routinization can easily block achievement of organizational objective."

In its treatment of differences in client relations and in external relations among these groups, the report opens some extremely worth while areas of inquiry. There can be no question, as the report points out, of the importance of the relative degree of freedom to seek out clientele, comparative brevity or performance of client relations and the extent of anonymity or personalization of these relations.

Similarly, in its treatment of external relations the report offers some useful distinction in terms of sources of support, patronage, "image," etc. One of the most significant observations in this section of the report is that of the freedom of the enterprise to change its domain, which seems to be more characteristic of business than of the other kinds of organization under consideration.

What do these differences and similarities add up to? In general, it may be said that the Committee has brilliantly and effectively opened up lines of inquiry. It has delineated the range of the subject and has suggested limitations. It is not a conclusive, exhaustive treatment of the differences and the similarities and their meaning. It is suggestive rather than definitive in relation to the implication of transferability of "know-how" and of administrative or executive personnel. It does not in any definitive sense deal with the component of executive leadership although it certainly does not ignore the subject. The report points out the importance of value commitment on the part of the executive, although there is not a thorough examination of how this commitment is developed, and it does leave open a larger question as to whether this can be acquired by the executive after joining the organization or whether it demands in some fields at least a really professional commitment to an organized value system. It is suggested by the report that the importance of professional background diminishes as a person moves from the supervisory to the organization-managing level.

In this context, the treatment of the significance of a multi-discipline organization is most helpful. It is, of course, true, as the report suggests, that no chief executive can be an expert in all of the features of a multi-discipline organization. One of the most controversial statements in the whole report is likely to be the suggestion on page 32 that an individual may be as well prepared for executive responsibility by entering through the door of a managerial speciality such as finance or personnel as through one of the professions associated with the service of the organization. No doubt, any one could cite examples both of the adequacy of people who have entered through this portal and of the failure of people who have entered by way of the professions. The real question is what is most likely to produce the kind of responsible executive needed for the organization.

This again is a familiar subject for debate. It goes all the way back to the thesis of Harold Laski who contended that the specialist or "expert" was disabled for executive leadership. Laski contended that "the expert sacrifices the inside of common sense to the intensity of his experience" in his famous Fabian Tract, "The Limitations of the Expert."

Again, I think that this question needs to be considered in relation to what we perceive to be the role of the executive. To what extent is he committed to leading the organization in new directions when required? To what extent, on the other hand, should he be viewed primarily as a managerial person designed to keep the processes flowing in an orderly way so that the skills of the organization can be expressed optimally in the administration of the existing services?

In examining the treatment of "leadership" on page 33 of the report, I am struck here by an indication that the Committee actually tended to subscribe somewhat to the Laski point of view. After disposing of the operator who uses the organization for his own end, the Committee proceeds to the professional who may have the narrowness of focus suggested by Laski. This is embodied in the statement "It is as easy for the professionally-certified administrator to subvert the organization's mission to the fads and doctrines of the profession as it is for the 'outsider' to misunderstand the mission and opportunities."

Nevertheless, it would be difficult to quarrel with the thesis presented here that the qualities of the individual are more important to administration than his professional identity. This whole subject needs to be studied objectively, and with a minimum of issuance of statements from previously prepared positions.

The report ends on a strong note in its conclusions on page 34. The plea for the reduction of parochialism is sound. In its final paragraph the report has a statement which again offers possibilities for additional inquiry. This is the statement to the effect that effective allocation of administrative talents will result from the development of administration itself as a recognized professional field to be combined with other professional competencies. This still leaves open the question of where this development should best take place. Should it occur in schools of public administration, business administration, and social work, respectively? Or, should there be a general area of study of administration which would offer a separate content? Or, would it be best for social work to work on the development of its own content, communicating freely and fully with the other areas so that it enters the cooperative relationship as a co-equal rather than exclusively as a borrower? In any event, there should be continuing channels of communication open and that which is common to all should be freely interchanged. That which is unique to each would provide some valuable lessons to the others.

Like the Pittsburgh Area Committee, the New York group was comprised of persons highly competent to speak from the vantage points of voluntary social welfare, public administration, and business. The report of the New York Committee, however, reflects problems which the Committee acknowledged, viz., discontinuity of leadership and shifting membership. Also, it was pointed out by the Committee that there was some imbalance among the fields, with a heavier weighting in social welfare and a lack of comparable representation in public administration or business. It was also pointed out by the Committee that organized labor was not represented.

In consequence, this report may be described as one which presents some fine material in certain parts of its narrative, but without the cohesive unified quality which such a group as this would produce under more auspicious circumstances.

There were points at which the Committee gave a once-over-lightly to a subject which needed much fuller discussion and development. The result in such instances was a question regarding the real meaning or significance of the observation. For example, on page 13 of the report an observation is made to the effect that decentralization and wider participation in decision-making makes the process of policy change slower and more cautious, but at the same time protects the public interest through limiting the potentially arbitrary power of a single individual. This is a matter which could be discussed at some length, including some analysis of the disadvantages of this situation which is frequently reflected in ponderous bureaucratic procedures which have the effect of hooking up a tractor to grind a pound of coffee.

Another example of rather skimpy treatment of a subject which could well merit more adequate attention appears on page 14 under "Effecting Change." In the first paragraph under this topic the large and vital question of adaptability to change is raised.

The description of the task of eliminating the non-productive and irritative components, and the ability to adapt to new circumstances and at the same time maintenance of the integrity of the organization is one which could open a whole Pandora's box of problems as well as a richly laden chest of opportunity.

This report seems to be focused more narrowly but at the same time more sharply on certain features of the problem than was the Pittsburgh report which was, as has been noted, more cohesive and incisive in many respects. The focus on administrative or managerial work, its tasks, the location of people who have the ability to perform in this capacity, and the provision of training and facilities for evaluation are all pertinent points which add something worthwhile.

Because of the difference in focus of the two reports, I am confining my comments of the New York Area Committee's discussion to those features which were largely unique to this report or which are additive to the material presented by the Pittsburgh Area Committee.

One such topic is the consideration of the role of the board with some comparable analysis of how this role is carried out among these three types of organization. I am sure that I would not agree with all of the detail of these differences, but I do feel that this is a particularly useful element to include in any consideration of this topic. At times there seemed to be some straining to identify distinctiveness with the differences probably not always as sharp as is indicated in the report. I am not certain, for example, that the degree of involvement necessarily tends to be different in voluntary social welfare as compared with private business or government. The statement to the effect that the board members take on this role because of a lack of confidence in the administrative capacity of the professionally based executive in a voluntary agency is one which is open to question and the question is not necessarily obviated by the qualifying statement that a particular factor "tends" to be present. I am not sure either that a board in any field "generally fired" the executive who isn't trusted or whose leadership is not accepted. I have known of too many instances in which the executive in question rests as a dead weight on the top of an organization.

One especially useful part of the New York Committee's report is discussion of the elements of management, beginning on page 14. This is somewhat different in its content and emphasis from the "levels" presented in the Pittsburgh report. Each has its uses for its particular purposes and both deal in different ways with the same phenomenon. The separation of planning, organization, integrating and measuring is quite valuable. To this, of course, would probably need to be added the Litchfield concept of the parts of a circular process with none being a mutually exclusive and finished activity before the other begins. This is certainly stated in the report in the sentence which describes these elements as forming a continuous cycle. It would also be most worthwhile to discuss the implications of the distinction raised by the Committee between coordination and control on the one hand and integrating and measuring on the other.

Also, I would like to single out for special mention the section dealing with the basic skills and attributes of an executive. These might not be the same attributes or abilities which all would impute to the executive task or to the person of executive, but I believe that they are germane and sound. An interesting point of inquiry would be the extent to which there is some differentiation of weighting of these abilities among the three types of enterprise or, on the other hand, the possibility that the weighting would be generally the same. Underlying this particular part of the report as well as the Pittsburgh Area Committee's presentation, is the question of the extent to which the executive needs to be a person who is "inner-directed" or self-initiated with respect to provision of adequate leadership.

There is a definite point of issue between the two reports on the question of the mobility of the executive or the transferability of executive personnel. The New York group stipulated that there is considerable support for the thesis that, except for rare instances, executives are not readily interchangeable. A rather strong statement is made regarding the importance of commitment to and knowledge of the substantive field. One might raise a question, for example, as to whether an executive really can overcome

obstacles presented by traditions and cultural patterns within a field more readily if he has had his own experience in that field. It might be argued conversely, as has already been noted, that he might be disabled from having the "bifocal vision" suggested by Trecker as an attribute of an executive if he is too narrowly focused in his own professional expertise. Also, there still remains the question of the professional identity or lack of it and its importance in a multi-discipline field.

No one could quarrel with the thesis that there is a need for an executive development program. The goals mentioned on pages 16 and 17 are good. They seem to be common to all three types of enterprise.

Likewise, the principles are sound. It would seem that the New York Area Committee agreed with the Pittsburgh group with respect to the personal and individual character of development in stressing the individual and his qualities, the report supports the thesis that perhaps these are more significant than a particular identity of the individual with respect to a substantive field.

The inclusion of discussion of the task of evaluation is another valuable contribution of this report. The suggestion that the executive has the right to an evaluation, as well as those who work under his direction, is an interesting point. It might be difficult to develop in some kinds of organizations.

As in the case of the Pittsburgh Area Committee, this group was not charged with responsibility for an exhaustive, definitive, and final analysis of all aspects of the common and uncommon elements. The conclusions, however, which are reached by this group are suggestive of some need for considerable additional inquiry before they are accepted. Is there validity in separate management training for each of the three fields of work? Should we accept uncritically, even though we are disposed to like the idea, that there should be more opportunities for managers of business, voluntary, welfare, and government to be trained together? What is meant by training "at least with respect to the common elements of management?" Is it possible to separate such a core of common elements as to provide a basis for an education separate from the substantive field of service?

Is it the intent to determine whether executives are transferable and to increase the accessible supply to any one of these groups by providing a pool of trained leadership? Or, is it more to provide for a common base of education which can be utilized with greater economy in both the professional schools and on the job training for persons who show potentialities for executive leadership in the future? Or, is it to provide a common body of literature and knowledge which can be used by any one of the three in its own unique or individual development of executive leadership? Or, should the outcome be primarily one of providing facilities for an increasing interchange of experience among these groups so each while retaining its own identity can derive maximum benefit from the experiences of the others? These are, perhaps, not mutually exclusive categories of possibilities, but they do suggest different levels of participation among the three groups.

In any event, the central point of my recommendation would be this: That social welfare not come to any immediate conclusions regarding the transferability of executive knowledge or skill. It would seem much more to the point now, at this stage in our history, to evolve our own content of administration, drawing on the others as fully and freely as possible. As we develop our own, we are more likely to see the opening of possible avenues of future cooperation on a broader scale than is presently the case. It would seem to me that it would be much more valuable to concentrate on our own area at this particular stage than to have additional discussions of common and uncommon elements. This can wait! The consideration of the possibilities and needs of our own field should certainly provide the opportunity to utilize the valuable material in these two reports. The Annual Forum might provide an opportunity for just this kind of exercise. I would like to stress, however, that we emphasize at this stage our own indigenous knowledge and concentrate on the development of a body of literature and content which will enable us to function responsibly and creatively as a full-fledged collaborator with other fields.

In this consideration, we might be well advised to look at social welfare generically, encompassing both voluntary and governmental forms of enterprise. This still leaves open the possibility of noting any differences of problems, content, or emphasis which may exist between public and voluntary social welfare administration.

In any event, we need to get on with the job of developing administrative content. Good administration of the complex services of today will not just happen. It must be studied and planned.

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